DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 105 463 CS 201 986

TITLE	Language and Communication: A Resource Book, K-12. Curriculum Guide No. 40.
INSTITUTION	Minnesota State Dept. of Education, St. Paul. Div. of Instruction.
PUB DATE	75
NOTE	220p.; Guide includes a recording which was removed from filmed copy
AVAILABLE FROM	Documents Section, Room 140, Centennial Building, St. Paul, Minnesota 55155 ($6.50 including record)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.76 HC-$10.78 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS	*Class Activities; *Communication (Thought Transfer); Composition (Literary); *Curriculum Guides; Elementary Secondary Education; *English Instruction; Instructional Materials; *Language Arts; Lesson Plans; Literature; Reading

ABSTRACT

The major focus of this resource book is on people and the problems they have in relating to one another for mutual growth and development in a rapidly changing society. The goals and objectives of the guide, especially those related to the use and misuse of language in human affairs, have been validated by research as effective for the improvement of writing, critical thinking and critical reading, and creativity, and for the reduction of prejudice. The contents consist of a section concerning perspectives on language and communication, with discussion and outlines of the subjects of language and communication, writing and communication, and language and literature; a section containing language study concepts and objectives, with sample lessons on the objectives, on speech dialects, and on general semantics; and 11 appendixes which contain material related to the various subjects of this guide. (JM)

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LANGUAGE & COMMUNICATION

A Resource Book

K-12

Curriculum Guide No. 40

CS 201 982

State of Minnesota
Department of Education
Division of Instruction
St. Paul
1975

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14

Spring, 1975
Division of Instruction
Minnesota Department of Education

Code VIII-A-E-C-13

Acknowledgements

THIS PUBLICATION HAD ITS ORIGIN with the summer institutes for English teachers in 1966 and 1967, supported by federal funds under the National Defense Education Act. Approximately 230 Minnesota secondary English teachers, who had attended a summer institute during one of those two years, were invited to attend one of a series of fifteen meetings throughout Minnesota during the 1967-68 school year. The purpose of each meeting was to provide a sharing experience for the teachers from different schools in each area represented and to generate ideas for broadening the impact of those summer institutes.

One outcome of the fifteen meetings was a week long planning session in August, 1968, involving 26 teachers* who had participated in summer institutes, and each of whom came to the meeting committed to conduct a series of ten weekly meetings for English teachers in his/her part of Minnesota during the fall of 1968. "Language Study Concepts and Objectives," p. 49, were developed during the August meeting and provided the basis for the inservice program, conducted by the teachers involved, during the fall of 1968 and for similar programs during the next two years.

In the fall of 1971, a new series of meetings was conducted throughout the state by many of the same teachers in an effort to generate objectives for this publication. Pages 53-60 were the result of those meetings. At another series of meetings in the fall of 1972, nearly 900 teachers reported their most successful teaching experience (lesson) in writing, related to one of the objectives compiled from the previous year's work. Many of them are included here in some form.

With the assistance of the Minnesota Council of Teachers of English, a steering committee was appointed to assist in guiding the development of this publication. From the steering committee, a task force of six members was appointed to assist with the first sorting and editing of the 900 lessons reported from Minnesota teachers during the fall of 1972. From the task force, a four-member writing team was formed to assist with the final drafting of the publication, which was then referred to the total steering committee for approval.

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THE FOLLOWING POEM was handed to a teacher in Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada, by a 12th grade student. Although it is not known if he actually wrote the poem himself, it is known that he committed suicide a few weeks later. The poem originally appeared in GENERATION, a Saskatoon based magazine.

He always wanted to explain things.
But no one cared.
Sometimes he would draw and it wasn't anything.
He wanted to carve it in stone or write it in the sky.
He would lie out in the grass and look up in the sky.
And it would only be him and the sky and the things inside him that needed saying.
And it was after that he drew his picture.
It was a beautiful picture.
He kept it under his pillow and would let no one see it.
And he would look at it every night and think about it.
And when it was dark, and his eyes were closed, he could still see it.
And it was all of him.
And he loved it.
When he started school he brought it with him.
Not to show anyone, but just to have it with him like a friend.
It was funny about school.
He sat in a square, brown desk;
Like all the other square, brown desks,
And he thought it should be red.
And his room was a square, brown room;
Like all the other square, brown rooms.
And it was tight and close,
And stiff.
He hated to hold the pencil and chalk,
With his arm stiff and his feet flat on the floor,
Stiff;
With the teacher watching and watching.
The teacher came and spoke to him.
She told him to wear a tie like all the other boys.
He said he didn't like them.
She said it didn't matter.
And after that they drew,
And he drew all yellow and it was the way he felt about morning.
And it was beautiful.
The teacher came and smiled at him.
What's this she said. Why don't you draw like Ken's drawing?
Isn't that beautiful?
After that, his mother bought him a tie.
And he always drew airplanes and rocket ships like everyone else.
And he threw the old picture away.
And when he lay alone looking at the sky,
It was big and blue and all of everything,
But he wasn't anymore.
He was square inside.
And brown,
And his hands were stiff.
And he was like everyone else.
And the things inside him that needed saying
Didn't need it any more.
It had stopped pushing.
It was crushed.
Stiff.
Like everything else.

WORDS OF WAR*

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Preface

THE MAJOR FOCUS of this resource book is on people and the problems people have relating to each other for mutual growth and development. The communication needs of people as individuals, as workers, as consumers, and as citizens in a rapidly changing society were considered in selecting the major goals and objectives included. Also, consideration was focused heavily on future communication needs for our effective survival on planet earth — which science and technology have reduced to a physical neighborhood before we humans have become a true brotherhood. This condition provides us with an intolerable contradiction that threatens the existence of the human species.

The goals and objectives included, especially those related to the use and misuse of language in human affairs, have been validated by research as effective for the improvement of writing, of critical thinking and critical reading, of creativity, and for the reduction of prejudice. All of those competencies and attitudes are likely to be of value to all of us into the foreseeable future — as workers, as consumers, as citizens, and as individuals.

Prologue to Language and Communication

THE ENCLOSED RECORD, "Language and Communication," consists of three songs: "What Do You Do When You're Mad?", "The Label Game," and "I Can Talk About You." The songs were reproduced from the album "I Wonder," with permission from Ruth Bebermeyer, Community Psychological Consultants, Inc., 1740 Gulf Drive, St. Louis, Missouri, 63130.

The lyrics for each of the three songs are enclosed, together with a learning activity (lesson plan) for each song. Since the three songs provide an overview of both the cognitive and affective aspects of this entire publication, it is suggested that you listen to the record and examine the learning activities included before exploring the remainder of this resource book.

It should be noted that the songs are presented in the order of their complexity. The first song can be used with young children with little or no advance preparation. The second song would require some preparation before using it with young children and, in some cases, with older children. The third song treats a rather complex concept which many people seem to have difficulty internalizing unless their attention has been directed toward the concept at an early age. *The Human Transaction*, listed in the Resource Center Bibliography, deals with that concept in detail.

Other songs from the same album include: "I Wonder," "How Do You Feel?", "Sometimes It Feels Good (To Feel Bad)," "Happiness Happens," "Noise," "You're Just a Kid," "Color Me Human," "Growin' Space," "Here and Now," "I'm So Many People," "I Want a Hug," "I Like Me," "An Ant and An Elephant," and "Communication."

What Do You Do (When You're Mad)?

What do you do when you're mad at somebody,
When you want to hit and holler
And grab him by the collar
And use all the words you know
That say you hate him so?
What do you do when you're mad?
What do you do when you're mad at somebody?
Do you blame him for your feeling
Mad enough to hit the ceiling?
Do you say to him, "You're bad!!!"?
Or can you just say, "I feel mad!"
What do you do when you're mad?
What do you do when you're mad at somebody?
Do you stop to look inside
Where your other feelings hide?
Underneath your hating part
You may find a hurting heart.
What do you do when you're mad?
What do you do when you're mad at somebody?
Do you ever stop to wonder
What he might be feeling under
The things he said to you?
It could be he's hurting, too.
What do you do when you're mad?
What do you do when you're mad at somebody?
Do you say that it's the end
And you'll never be his friend?
Do you leave and slam the door?
Or do you say, "Let's talk some more"?
What do you do when you're mad?

Objectives: 2, 3

Major Activity

Analyzing language and anger.

General Objective

To reduce language usage that causes anger and increase language usage that soothes, or that stimulates good feelings.

Specific Objective

To identify words that cause anger and words that make people feel good, and to develop strategies for reducing usage of the first and increasing the usage of the second.

Resources

Record **I Wonder** containing the song: "What Do You Do When You're Mad?" Copies of the words to the song. Record player, paper and pencils

Conditions

Adequate for small group work

Time

Two-three class periods — or more

Procedure

(1) Play the song: "What Do You Do When You're Mad?"
(2) Ask students if they ever get mad?
(3) Ask each student to make a list of all the words he/she can think of, in two minutes, that make him/her mad.
(4) Ask each student to make a list of all the words he/she can think of, in two minutes, that make him/her feel good.
(5) Divide class into subgroups of 4-5 each.
(6) Ask each group to compile their lists into one list that they can all agree to.
(7) Ask them to compile another that makes certain individuals mad but doesn't make others mad.
(8) Repeat 6 and 7 for words that make them feel good.
(9) Then compile each list for the entire class on the chalkboard.
(10) Then develop strategies for reducing the use of the "mad" words, and increasing the use of the "good" words.

Evaluation

(1) Using their lists, have students make a survey of how often they hear the "mad" words during the next 24 hours; at school, at home, on television, radio, etc.
(2) Have students report the results of their findings the next day.
(3) Set a date a week or two in the future for reporting the results of their strategies for reducing their own use of the "mad" words and increasing their use of the "good" words.
(4) Determine what next steps are needed.

The Label Game

Label, label, let us play the Label Game today.
(After last verse): Label, label, there's no way
to win this game today!
Have you pinned some labels on you? Are you stuck
with names that con you
Into being what you're not? Labels are a vicious lot!
I can do it to you also — call you names that build
a wall so
High that you're boxed in, you see. You can do the
same to me.
Label, label, there's no limit to how miserable and
grim it
Can be to be named before we can be just who we are.
If I say that I am shy it seems you always pass me by.
Funny how it seems to be self-fulfilling prophecy.
If I say you're a bad person I can almost see you worsen.
Funny how my words for you have a way of coming true.
If you say that I am stupid, pretty soon I'm acting duped.
Funny how your names for me become actuality.
If you say that I am selfish, I feel hard as any shellfish,
I can almost guarantee you won't get a thing from me!
If you say that I am lazy, I start feeling lackadaisical.
Strange how your words for me make me into what you see.

Major Activity

Analyzing "The Label Game" song.

General Objective

Reduction of language usage that stimulates antagonism.

Specific Objective

To identify and classify people labels that hurt or damage people.

Resources

Recording of "The Label Game"

Conditions

Adequate for small group work

Time

Two-three periods, or more

Procedures

(1) Listen to the song, followed by immediate reactions by students.

(2) Divide class into groups of 4-5 each; distribute copies of words to the song.

(3) First have groups identify the labels actually mentioned in the song, then identify other significant labels which they feel affect the way people behave.

(4) Have groups classify the labels according to who uses them for whom. Compile a master list from the subgroups.

(5) Using the completed list as a checksheet, suggest that students try to discover which labels they hear used during the next 24 hours — at school, at home, on television, radio, etc. — and to record any additional labels they hear used.

(6) Compile the results of the 24 hour survey.

(7) Again working in subgroups, have students try to identify those labels that cause the most harm — that hurt the most!

(8) Again compile a master list from the subgroups.

(9) Have students work out strategies for eliminating the use of the most harmful labels that they have been using on others and on themselves.

Evaluation

Set a date a week or two in the future for checking the results of their strategies and their efforts in using them. Do some new strategies need to be worked out and tried?

(Note: It would be most helpful if, during the process, the teacher identifies some labels the teacher has been using and joins in the project of eliminating them.)

I Can Talk About You

I can talk about you
I can talk about you
I can talk about you but when I do,
I'm talkin' 'bout me.
I can talk about you and the things you do,
I can tell everybody what you're doing wrong or right;
I can say you're bad or good,
That you're doing what you shouldn't or should,
I can talk about you but when I do
I'm talkin' 'bout me!
When I talk about you I'm talkin' 'bout me,
In a roundaword way the things I say about you
Say what I like or don't,
Say I'll take you as you are or I won't.
I can talk about you but it's true
I'm talkin' 'bout me!

Major Activity

Analyze what is going on when I talk about you.

General Objective

To distinguish between what is going on and what we feel or understand is going on.

Specific Objective

To demonstrate that when I talk about you, I'm talking about me.

Resources

Record with song "I Can Talk About You." Words to the song "I Can Talk About You" on paper or transparency.
Overhead projector

Conditions

Adequate for work in small groups

Time

Two or more class periods

Procedure

(1) Listen to the song; followed by student immediate reactions, in a brief discussion.

(2) Divide class into groups of 4-5; examine words of the song projected on the screen.

(3) Each group makes a list of all the things we say about others that may be true only in our own minds.

(4) Compile a master list from all the subgroups.

(5) Groups discuss what significance (if any) the idea of the song has for our everyday communication behavior; list all ideas contributed.

(6) Group lists are shared.

Evaluation

Groups generate an action program based on the song: things we should be able to do better with others, at school, at home, at work, etc. Group lists of action programs shared with entire class. Also design a follow-up program to check on their own behavior.

Language and Communication

INTRODUCTION

The Communications Era

IN EDUCATION FOR PEACE, ASCD* 1973 Yearbook, Betty Reardon stresses that: "Programs for the 1970s should have as their long range targets not this decade but the next century." The child entering kindergarten in 1975 will be only thirty years of age when he/she enters the 21st century. How well will we prepare that child to cope with his/her future?

Well over 100 years ago, Abraham Lincoln contended that: "If we could know where we are and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it." In *Future Shock*, Alvin Toffler seemed to be taking Lincoln's point one step further when he asked. "But where do we want to go?" And "What would happen if we tried to answer that question?"

In *Foundations of Futurology in Education*, Robert Theobald says: "With, or without, mankind's active participation, society is moving through the transition from the *Industrial Era* into the *Communications Era* . . . but unless the majority of the people become aware of it and act on that awareness, the reality does very little good." Should we accept Theobald's "Communications Era" as an appropriate label for the period in which we are now living?

The specialization resulting from our scientific and technological revolution has made us into an interdependent society while, at the same time, it has divided us into special interest groups competing against each other for what we perceive to be our vested interests — a paradoxical situation, an increasingly dangerous dilemma! For, during the "Industrial Era," our society has been engaged in the process of exploiting the earth's resources at a faster and faster rate while, at the same time, we have been exploiting our fellowman/woman with a devastating ruthlessness.

The Crisis Explosion

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*Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

Science and technology have increased our life span, resulting in more and more people competing for our planet's limited resources until now we are facing an energy crisis, a pollution crisis, a resources crisis, a food crisis for much of the world's population, a war crisis, a crime crisis (violent and non-violent), a credibility crisis, a trust (or distrust) crisis, a communications crisis, etc. In his "Communications" booklet, Don Fabun reports: "It has been said that man is the only creature on earth who can talk himself into trouble. And after a couple of million years of practice, we have become pretty good at it." If we are to talk ourselves out of the troubles (the multiple crises) engulfing our global village, we will need to give our fullest attention to improving our communication competencies.

So, perhaps Theobald's "Communications Era" is an appropriate term for labeling the era in which we are now living, and in which we are likely to be living into the foreseeable future. For the world's population continues to increase at the rate of about 200,000 people per day, which could mean another two billion people on our "Spaceship Earth" by the 21st century — more and more people who will have to share our planet's limited resources, more and more people who will need to talk out their problems.

It is becoming more and more apparent that we can no longer afford to waste our precious resources in warfare. We need them for our survival. In *How To Be a Survivor*, Paul Ehrlich contends that "War (conflict) on a spaceship is insanity." He maintains that we must move from a competitive society to a cooperative society, that every person must become a crew member of Spaceship Earth — not just a passenger. Crew members have to cooperate to be effective, and cooperation requires communication.

Communication requires honesty, openness, and trust. It requires an understanding of the communication process, including the role of language, verbal and non-verbal, in that process. It requires an understanding of self and of others. It requires an understanding of attempts at manipulative and misleading communication. As Theobald has pointed out, "We justify inaccurate movement of information under three names: 'public relations, advertising, and management of news.'" In relation to Theobald's point, The National Council of Teachers of English passed two resolutions at the 1971 convention in Las Vegas:

He's Still Looking

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1. "On Dishonest and Inhumane Uses of Language: Resolved, that the National Council of Teachers of English find means to study dishonest and inhumane uses of language and literature by advertisers, to bring offenses to public attention, and to propose classroom techniques for preparing children to cope with commercial propaganda.
2. "On the Relation of Language and Public Policy: Resolved, that the National Council of Teachers of English find means to study the relation of language to public policy, to keep track of, publicize, and combat semantic distortion by public officials, candidates for office, political commentators, and all who transmit through the mass media."

At the 1972 convention in Minneapolis, the National Council of Teachers of English established a "Committee on Public Doublespeak" to act on the two resolutions quoted above, and to develop strategies for developing competencies for coping with public doublespeak and for eliminating forms of doublespeak from our own communication behavior. Doublespeak has been described as talking out of both sides of our mouth, as making misleading statements, as using euphemistic terms to describe our actions in order to make them more palatable, etc.

Irresponsible uses of language pose a threat to our entire society. Those who attempt to manipulate or mislead others by deliberately misusing language not only harm others, they usually end up deceiving themselves when they reach the point of believing that what they are saying is true. In view of the number of crises facing society in our global village, the time has come when we must learn how to talk ourselves out of the troubles we have talked ourselves into, when we must learn how to cooperate through communication, when we must explore the pertinent factors in our communication behavior that have brought on our current crises, and those communication factors that can help us resolve those crises.

This publication is an attempt to address the crucial communication problems facing our society. It is an attempt to bring together some basic assumptions about language and the communication process, about our communication behaviors and their implications for what goes on in our schools from Kindergarten through Grade 12. It also is an attempt to point toward some changes in direction concerning the responsible uses of language and ways of coping with irresponsible uses of language.

Our committee agreed that the purposes, stated above, for this publication are so important that we should try to bring together for teachers of communication the best specific helps available. For if we teachers can improve our own competencies in talking sense about language and communication, we would be making a start toward modeling a responsible use of language. Such language behavior on our part would, in turn, enable us to explore with our students the responsible and irresponsible uses of language that could make a real difference in talking out our problems.

With such a focus for this publication, some of the areas normally stressed in curriculum guides have been either omitted or referred to as being more adequately treated in other publications. Also, this publication was planned as a loose-leaf book so that each area treated could be enlarged in the future, or even that completely new sections could be added at a later date. Furthermore, this feature permits you to insert your own ideas at any point, to update or to substitute your own materials that may be more appropriate for your own students, etc.

Considering the realities of a rapidly changing society and the nature of this publication, our committee concluded that this Resource Book could not be completed; of a necessity, it will always be in process. By focusing on the present and future needs of our society, our committee was confident that what we have selected for inclusion will be relevant into the foreseeable future.

We hope that this publication provides a viable start toward the improvement in communication in our daily lives both public and private. If the goals and objectives included can be achieved, we should be on the way to alleviating the human conditions responsible for our concerns which promoted programs in drug education, environmental education, career education, and human relations education.

The Little Engine that Couldn't

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Can we avoid this type of self-fulfilling prophecy?

Perspectives for Inservice Education and Program Development

WENDELL JOHNSON ONCE OBSERVED: "The wise man knows what the questions are . . . If, then, we insist on answers we can trust, we shall become wise in finding them." What are the questions we should be asking ourselves and each other about relevant inservice programs for teachers and for relevant program development in the language arts? The following questions are submitted for consideration:

Role of Language in the Human Process

1. From the epilogue of *Invisible Man* by Ralph Ellison: "Without the possibility for *action*, all knowledge comes to one labeled 'File and Forget.' "
   Can action be assured if we consider the language arts program as a continuous inquiry into the responsible and irresponsible uses of language:
   a) in human affairs?
   b) in human relationships?
   c) in the learning process?
   d) in the thinking process?
   e) in the emotional process?
   f) in cooperation?
   g) in conflict?
2. In view of the above questions, what language concepts should permeate the entire language arts program?
3. What language concepts need reinforcement in the other subject areas?

Language of the Concrete and the Abstract

4. Why have we succeeded in using language to achieve miraculous developments in science and technology while making little or no progress in our use of language to improve human relations — to talk ourselves out of the troubles we have talked ourselves into?

When the Doctors Disagree

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Where is the meaning? Why do doctors get involved in 'Tis-Tain't arguments?

5. What are the similarities and differences in the way we use language to talk about the *concrete world* of things and about the *abstract world* of ideas and feelings?
6. What words do we use in talking about the concrete world of things that become metaphorical when used to talk about the abstract world of ideas?

Language and Meaning

7. Do words have meanings for people? Or do people have meanings for words? Should we use these two structures interchangeably?
8. Where does meaning exist? Where does knowledge exist? What goes on when we try to communicate? What happens? How does the process take place?
9. Do we *acquire* knowledge or do we *generate* knowledge?

The Role of Language in Learning

10. What is the role of language in the learning process? In the thinking process? What do we mean by "vocabulary development"? Do we learn the meanings of words? Or do we learn meanings for words?
11. Should we be concerned about our *use of a precise language* or about our precise use of language? What differences could it make?
12. Should we study *how language operates* or how we *operate our language*? Are there important distinctions (or implications) inherent in these two structures for learning *to be precise in our use of language*?

Written Language and Learning

13. What is the role of writing in the learning process? In the thinking process? In problem-solving?
14. What should be the role of writing in a language arts program? In the total school program?
15. Should the emphasis be on teaching composition or to help students use writing to improve their learning-thinking-feeling powers concerning issues important to them?

Language, Attitudes, Values, and Literature

16. What attitudes and values tend to interfere with or to control our reactions to what we read or to what we hear?
17. What materials (print or non-print) would be most relevant for dealing with such attitudes and values?
18. Should we actually teach literature? Or would it be more meaningful for us to make use of literature to study attitudes, values, and feelings? To study the language of love and conflict, of cooperation and aggression, to study the concrete and the abstract?

Meeting the Language Needs of Individuals

19. What are the basic language needs of all students? In the concrete world? In the abstract world of ideas and feelings?
20. What are the language differences found among the students in any given classroom?
21. How can any given course, starting on a given date and ending on another given date, meet the language needs of all the students while providing for the differences among all the students enrolled in that class?
22. Should we foster competitive learning or cooperative learning? What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of each for language development? For emotional development?

Language and Question Asking

23. What is the role of language in learning how to ask more productive questions? In avoiding trivia questions?

24. What is the role of language in changing unanswerable questions into answerable questions?
25. How can we help our students learn how to ask more productive questions? To ask answerable questions?
26. Can we use the questions listed above for developing more meaningful inservice programs? For developing better language programs for students? Will these questions, together with attempts to answer them, serve to stimulate enough productive questions to provide a basis for inservice programs and program development into the foreseeable future?

Collapse of human society seen if economic and population growth continues

—Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

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Language and Communication

How We Talk About Language, Teaching, Learning

IT HAS BEEN SAID that "the way we talk affects the way we behave" and that "the way we behave affects the way we talk." Thus, our talking seems to involve a circular process from which there is no escape. We seem to be trapped in our talk and our behavior. In our crisis-prone society, it has become imperative that we break out of the verbal-behavior trap that seems to be holding us on the road to disaster. H. G. Wells once said that "Civilization is a race between education and catastrophe." Over sixty years have gone by since Wells gave us his warning; yet we still seem to be losing the race to Catastrophe. Why? Perhaps some of Terence P. Moran's comments in his essay in *Language in America* are pertinent to this question. Moran contends that education, for the most part, deals with trivia, that the vast number of test questions used in our schools consist of matching questions concerned with who, what, and when, and that "why" questions seldom occur in school evaluations. He contends that this happens because we look at education as a *matching* process rather than a *making* process.

We might suggest that the "objective" tests, from which Moran selected his illustrations, may be so popular because they are so easy to develop; and that the popularity of such tests may have something to do with the frequency in the use of matching questions on trivia. On the other hand, if Moran is correct in contending that we conceive of education as a *matching* process rather than a *making* process, perhaps we should ask: "Why *do* we conceive of education this way?" After all, Moran did insist that we should be asking more *why* questions.

In order to discover why we conceive of education as a matching process, we may need to explore the way we talk about language and education. What are the basic terms we use and why do we use those terms? Since the dictionary is supposed to be a record of what "educated" people say they mean when they use certain words (terms), perhaps some exploring in the dictionary might provide us with some clues about our conception of education as a matching process — if, indeed, that is the case.

Although different dictionaries may vary in their definitions, seldom do the differences seem to be significant. Since *language, communication,* and *meaning* are the major concerns in this publication, we will start our exploration with those terms:

language: 1. a) the expression or *communication* of thoughts and feelings by means of vocal sounds, and combinations of such sounds, to which *meaning* is attributed; b) human speech; c) the vocal sounds so used, or the written symbols for them.

meaning: 1. that which is signified by something; what something represents; sense; import; semantic content: "Pending a satisfactory explanation of the notion of meaning, linguists in the semantic field are in the situation of not knowing what they are talking about." (Willard V. Quine.)

According to the introduction to the dictionary[1] used: "Where necessary to clarify a meaning or idiomatic usage, the editors have included an example, either quoted from literature or staff-written." How helpful are the above

[1] *The American Heritage Dictionary,* (Boston, Houghton, Mifflin, 1969).

definitions for anyone who really needs help? About all we seem to be able to learn from the definition of "meaning" is that we use such words as: signified, sense, import, and semantic content interchangeably. For your own satisfaction, you might want to examine the dictionary definitions for each of those words.

How helpful is the quotation used for clarifying "meaning"? The author implies that we do not now have a satisfactory explanation of the notion of "meaning"; therefore, linguists in the semantic field (who are, we assume, concerned about meaning) don't know what they are talking about. Also, it would seem reasonable to infer from the quotation that other linguists (who are not concerned about meaning and who, therefore, talk about meaningless aspects of language) do know what they are talking about. If our exploration, up to this point, seems to be less than enlightening, what are the implications for teachers in relation to students, dictionaries, and abstract words? Let us continue.

In order to examine the terms we use in talking about teaching and learning, we have condensed or summarized the definitions for a number of the terms, while exercising care not to distort them, so we could put them as closely together as possible:

teach: is to impart *knowledge* to
instruct: is to furnish with *knowledge*
educate: is to provide with *knowledge*
inform: is to impart *information*
knowledge: is *information* and *information* is *knowledge*
impart: is to bestow, disclose, tell, communicate
tell: is to narrate, recount, communicate, notify, inform
communicate: is to impart, transmit
transmit: is to send, to convey, to communicate
convey: is to transport, to conduct, transmit, communicate, impart
inculcate: is to teach by forceful urging or frequent repetition.

Can we discover any clues in the above definitions that may help us understand why we perceive education as a *matching* process rather than a *making* process? Which of the terms are borrowed from our talk about the physical world? Are those terms used literally or metaphorically? If they are used metaphorically, do they help us understand what happens in education? Or are they misleading when used to refer to such intangibles as ideas, concepts, knowledge, etc., as though they were physical things? How precise are we in the use of language when we talk about education? Is it possible to develop more precision in our use of language for talking about the process we call "education"?

From an examination of the definitions listed above, it appears that our entire defining process (for terms we use in talking about teaching and learning) consists of the matching of labels. We define our labels with other labels and end up with a succession of verbal circles, a succession of matching labels. Is it any wonder that we perceive education as a *matching* process rather than a *making* process? How can we break out of our verbal-behavior trap? The definition of *inculcate* may be somewhat revealing. For if to *inculcate* is to teach by *frequent repetition*, then the desired response would seem to be one of getting students to parrot back the appropriate matching verbalizations. What kinds of questions can lead us into more productive discussions about what teachers and students do, or about what they could be doing? What is the nature of this something we call *knowledge*? Can it be imparted, transmitted, conveyed, transported, or communicated? Does knowledge really exist anywhere except within the human mind? Would it be better to talk about *making, creating,* or *generating* knowledge and understanding rather than *imparting, transmitting, conveying,* or even

communicating them? We often say that it takes too long for each person to re-invent the wheel. But, in essence, each person does have to re-invent the wheel if he is to use it in a new situation. Our perceptions of words and meanings as though they were physical things that can be transmitted, conveyed, etc., may be related to the language structures we use in talking about them. We frequently say that "words have meanings." Do we mean that words possess meanings? Can words possess anything?

When we talk about teaching, learning, education, words and meanings, do we distinguish in our own minds when we are using words literally or metaphorically? Do words have meanings for people? Or do people have meanings for words? Are we being more precise in the use of language when we talk about the meanings of words or about our meanings for words? And what are the implications for what teachers do with students in their classrooms? If we cannot transmit or convey knowledge and understanding to our students, if our task is defined as one of assisting students in the creation or the generation of knowledge and understanding, then our challenge is to determine how to provide learning situations that will help our students re-invent the wheel, or to invent new wheels, in the least possible time.

If, as indicated above, changing the way we talk about teaching and learning requires a redefinition of the teacher's role in the classroom (or a redefinition of a classroom), then we may have to re-examine the entire school operation. For teachers may need to spend much more of their time developing better learning situations for their students and much less time actually working with their students — if we conceive of education as a *making* process rather than a *matching* process.

Language Structure and Meaning

SO FAR, WE HAVE BEEN CONCERNED primarily with the choice of the words we use in talking about language, teaching, and learning. In the last two paragraphs, however, we posed two questions with reversed structures and dealt briefly with their implications: "Do words have meanings for people? Or do people have meanings for words?" In the first question, the structure places the focus on "words." In the second question, the structure places the focus on "people." If our answer is "yes" to the first question, we are likely to focus our study on "words." If our answer is "yes" to the second question, then we are likely to focus our study on "people."

Thus, we come back to our opening statement concerning the way we talk and the way we behave, and how the two are intertwined. The language structure we use, as well as our choice of words, tends to reflect the way we perceive, the way we think about, whatever it is we are talking about. Unless we are aware of how we can become entrapped by our language structure, we may not be able to free ourselves from such entrapment. This lack of awareness was illustrated many times in a new book we acquired while working on this publication. *Coming to Terms With Language* is an anthology of 30 essays written by as many authors. It was edited by Raymond D. Liedlich, published by John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1973. The book is highly recommended for study, not only for the excellent examples of irresponsible (sloppy) uses of language bombarding us daily, but for the examples inadvertently presented by the authors of the essays.

In essay #3, Melvin Maddocks refers to a point stressed by George Orwell — "that sloppy language makes for sloppy thought," which is not quite what Orwell said in the essay referred to. Orwell said: "The language becomes ugly and inaccurate because our thoughts are foolish, but the slovenliness of our language makes it easier to have foolish thoughts." It might be more precise

and concise to say: "The sloppy use of language can result from sloppy thought and vice versa." Where is the sloppiness? In the language or in the user? This distinction may be important, for the way we respond may determine what we do to improve our language behavior — which may make all the difference!

At another point, Maddocks asks: "Who will protect the language from all the oversimplifiers and overcomplicators who kill meaning with shouts or smother it with cautious mumbles?" We might ask: "Who will protect us from this type of question?" His question seems to imply that *someone* should protect the *language* from the oversimplifiers and the overcomplicators. Certainly, we should be able to accept the notion that those two groups pose a danger to all of us. And we should try not to join either group so that we will not pose a danger to others and to ourselves.

Perhaps we should restructure Maddocks' question to read something like this: "What do we need to know and what skills do we need to develop in order to protect ourselves from the oversimplifier and the overcomplicator, and in order not to become either one?"

Near the end of the essay, Maddocks raises similar questions: "How does one rescue language? How are words repaired, put back in shape, restored to accuracy and eloquence, made faithful again to the commands of the mind and the heart?" He goes on to say that "there is, sadly enough, no easy answer." Not only may there be no easy answer, there may be no answer at all because the questions, as stated, may be unanswerable!
Although there may be no answer for his questions, there may be answers to the following question: "How do we rescue people from their sloppy use of language or from being victims of the sloppy use of language directed at them by others?"

Another type of "eloquence-clarity" problem was illustrated in essay #2, by John Cogley: "We can deceive ourselves by accepting words that make evil look good, the ugly appear beautiful, or the sick look healthy." How would we analyze the content of Cogley's statement if we accept the notion that "beauty is in the eye of the beholder"? Would it be better to restructure his statement to read: "We can deceive ourselves by accepting or by using words that tend to make us view something as more or less evil, as more or less ugly, or as more or less sick"?

Cogley also uses some structures similar to those quoted from Maddocks: "*The corruption of language*, especially when it is rationalized by more *corrupt* language, can lead to incalculable harm." Should we use a structure that places the focus on the corruption of *language* or on the corruption of *people*? Should we try to get people to use a more precise language or to get them to be more precise in their use of language? Is the precision in the language or in the user (or the producer) of language?

At another point Cogley states: "The abuse of language is at the root of almost every case of mob violence." Would it be more accurate (or meaningful) to say that: "The use of language to abuse people (by calling them "Pigs," "Bums," etc.) is at the root of almost every case of mob violence"? Which structure is more likely to help us focus on the development of language behaviors that could prevent mob violence?

Earlier, we raised the question about the appropriate use of metaphors. This question was raised at the end of essay #28 by Norman Cousins, entitled "The Environment of Language," with the following: "What is the metaphorical basis for the title?" And "Do you consider this to be an effective metaphor?" Again, we seem to have unanswerable questions, but for different reasons. In the first case, the questions were unanswerable because the structure of the questions was misleading and the terms used were so metaphorical as to be meaningless. The latter questions seem to imply that the essay

title is metaphorical — which could be the case only if our meanings for "environment" exclude language from being a part of our surroundings.

The exclusion of language hardly seems reasonable if we can accept our dictionary's definitions, the third of which reads: "All the conditions, circumstances, and influences surrounding, and affecting the development of an organism or group of organisms: often contrasted with 'heredity.' "

On the other hand, essay #1, by Peter Farb, opens with the statement: "Man is not born free. He *inherits* a language full of quaint sayings, archaisms, and a ponderous grammar; even more important, he *inherits* certain fixed ways of expression that may shackle his thoughts." What about Farb's use of *inherit* in both statements above? Has he used *inherit* metaphorically? If he has, is it an appropriate metaphor? Or would it be more accurate to say: "Man grows up in a language environment full of quaint sayings, etc."? And "He is surrounded by expressions that may shackle his thoughts"? Such questions are not raised at the end of this essay.

What about the value of metaphors? How often do they really help in clarifying what we are talking about? How often may they distort or confuse? How much care should we exercise in our choice of metaphors? Have we gone overboard (?) in our encouragement of the use of figurative language? Can such expressions shackle our thoughts? How important is clarity?

The above illustrations from *Coming to Terms With Language* were not used for the purpose of denigrating the book or any of the contributing authors. Rather, they were used to illustrate the enormous complexity and difficulty of using language with accuracy, precision, and discernment to talk about the responsible and irresponsible use of language in the intangible world of ideas, relationships, and feelings. The editor and the authors should be commended for their insights and for their willingness to attempt the task of sharing them with us. They have been dealing with what may be the most crucial problem facing our society. They have made the start. It is up to us to join them in the herculean task of cleaning up our language environment — in our choice of words and how we structure them.

Vocabulary Development

IF THE BASIC ASSUMPTION that "people have meanings for words" is a valid structure for representing the realities concerning words, meanings, and people (in contrast to "words have meaning for people"), then won't we need to keep exploring how people *develop* or *generate* their meanings for words? The words "develop" and "generate" were used in the last statement instead of "get," "acquire" or "obtain" because the latter words tend to suggest that *meaning* is out there somewhere for us to *get*. On the other hand, the words "develop" and "generate" tend to suggest that *meaning* results from processing something, and that the processing goes on inside people.

Yet, how often do we hear people talk about *getting* or *acquiring* ideas, information, or knowledge from a book, another person, etc. What the other person said, or wrote, may have stimulated us to *develop* a specific idea, etc. But do we actually *develop* an idea that is identical to the one in the mind of the person who made the statement or statements involved? Often, we react to such a statement with: "I agree" or "I disagree" — without asking any questions to discover whether we really do agree or disagree. In either case, communication problems may occur which will be difficult to resolve.

Vocabulary development, therefore, may be considered as a continuous process — not only developing new meanings for words but attempting to discover the other person's meanings for the words he uses in particular situations. The process is rather complex when we are dealing with physical things. The process becomes much more complex when we are dealing with

abstractions, with intangibles, and with feelings. If we wish to work toward cooperation and to reduce conflict, we may need to exercise the utmost care and caution when dealing with the vocabulary of the abstract, intangible world of ideas, relationships, and feelings.

Since we frequently do use such words as "get" and "acquire" when we talk about ideas, meanings, or feelings, we might contend that we are using them metaphorically. But are they appropriate metaphors? When we define reading as "getting the meaning from the printed page," we seem to be implying two things: 1) that meaning is on the printed page, and 2) that reading is the process of *getting* that meaning. Does meaning exist on the printed page? Or does the printed page cause (or stimulate) us to *develop* or *generate* meanings? And do our meanings differ so often because each of us has processed those meanings from differing sets of background experiences?

What if we defined reading as the process of reacting to the printed page? Would we be as inclined to say: "This is what *it* means" or "This is *the meaning*"? Or would we be more inclined to say: "This is my reaction (or meaning) for that statement right now, at this moment"? Could it make a difference in our communication behavior if we were even more careful in *developing* meanings for words in the abstract, intangible area of ideas, meanings, and feelings than we are in the area of concrete, tangible things?

For vocabulary development in the language of the abstract area of meanings and feelings, how much "acting out" is needed? How much role-playing is needed? How much drama is needed? What about the role of what we sometimes call "creative drama"? What kinds of questions should we ask in order to be more certain about what the other person means? Do we need to *develop* "question-asking" competencies for this purpose? Do we need to *develop* question-asking habits? Can we help our students *develop* such

FIGMENTS **By Dale Hale**

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competencies and habits by modeling them as we work with students? (See the following section on "Modeling Language Patterns in the Classroom.")

Earlier, questions were raised about such words as "get," "acquire," and "obtain" in contrast to the words "develop" and "generate" when we are talking about (what, traditionally, has been called) the "receiving" end of the communication process. On the other hand, when we talk about the "sending" end of the communication process, we use such words as "transmit," "convey," and "communicate" interchangeably. Here again, we are using words that indicate physical movement when we are talking about the physical world of things. What moves when we talk? Do our ideas, thoughts, or feelings move from us to others who are listening? We can transmit sound waves, electro-magnetic waves, etc. Can an idea be transmitted? Or, are we again using such words metaphorically? Is the word "transmit" an appropriate metaphor for talking about communication? When we use the word "convey" in the physical world, we use it to indicate movement. But when we convey an idea, information, or knowledge, what moves?

We do transmit sound waves when we talk. We can put a book, a magazine, a letter, etc., on a conveyor belt to move the object from one point to another. But has the message been *conveyed*? Will the person who receives the book, etc., understand it in the same way as the person who sent it? Or the person who wrote it? When we try to communicate through speech or writing, aren't we acting as though we were sending, receiving, and interpreting signals in much the same way as did the signalmen on ships at sea when they used flags? When we speak or write, we send configurations of sound waves or light waves instead of configurations of flag-waving. When we read or listen, we are receiving and interpreting configurations of sound waves and light waves.

If we are to improve the results of our communication efforts, isn't it imperative that we *develop* the fullest understanding of what is going on? Of what is happening? And especially when we are dealing with the abstract, intangible area of ideas, thoughts, and feelings?

Communication has been defined as "the process of conducting the attention of the other person for the purpose of causing him to develop a replica of ideas, images, memories, etc." [1] For that process to be successful requires a high degree of responsibility by both the sender and the receiver — a responsibility for using extreme care in his own vocabulary development, for using language with precision and discernment, for raising questions for the purpose of clarifying. Will anything less enable us to survive in today's "Communications Era." (Referred to in the Introduction.)

Make out your own list of troublesome words for additional study.

[1] F. A. Cartier and K. A. Harwood. "On Definition of Communication." *The Journal of Communication* 3 (1953): 71-75.

Modeling Language Patterns in the Classroom

SINCE CHILDREN LEARN their language patterns from those that are modeled before them, it becomes imperative that teachers model those patterns that are most helpful in understanding what is going on around them, whether in the physical world of things or the intangible world of ideas, values, or feelings — and especially concerning the communication and educational processes. The language patterns we use in asking questions about language and meaning may be crucial, as well as the patterns we use in the instructions, directions or assignments aimed at children.

When we talk about the concrete or physical world, we are usually quite consistent in the language structures or patterns we use. Seldom does anyone say "man bites dog" for "dog bites man" or "fleas have dogs" for "dogs have fleas." Such reversals would be considered confusing, to say the least. Yet such

reversals do occur at times when we talk about the abstract or intangible world of ideas, about words and meanings.

Much of our talk about words and meanings seems to be based upon or consistent with the following structure: "Words have meanings for people." Yet if we stop to consider where meaning exists, we might ask: "Do words have meanings?" Or "Do people have meanings?" If meaning exists in people, then shouldn't we say "People have meanings for words," which is a reversal of the former statement? Can we have it both ways without being as confused and as confusing as we would be if we were to use "fleas have dogs" and "dogs have fleas" interchangeably? Structure in the English language can be fundamental to meaning.

When we work with children concerning words and meanings, are we modeling language patterns that may be confusing for them and for ourselves? The following questions and statements may help us clarify the issue of structure and meaning. They are arranged in pairs. Those on the left are heard more frequently in classrooms. They are based upon and are consistent with: "Words have meanings for people." Those on the right are heard less frequently in classrooms. They are based upon and are consistent with: "People have meanings for words." Since structure seems to be so important for talking sense in the English language, it is suggested that careful consideration be given to each pair of questions and statements listed below:

Words Have Meanings for People	**People Have Meanings for Words**
1. What does this word mean? Or, do you know the meaning of this word?	1. What does this word make you think of? Or, what is your meaning for this word? Do others have different meanings? Why?
2. Does this word have more than one meaning?	2. Do you have more than one meaning for this word? Do others have meanings that differ from yours? Why?
3. What does this paragraph mean?	3. What is your meaning for this paragraph? Does your meaning differ from others? Why?
4. What did the author mean?	4. What do you think the author meant? Do others have different ideas? Why? What did the author actually say?
5. What is the meaning of this poem?	5. What is your meaning for this poem? What is the basis for your interpretation?
6. What emotion does this poem express?	6. How does this poem make you feel? Why? How does it make others feel? Why?
7. What words express that emotion?	7. What words make you feel good? Why? Which words make you feel bad? Why?
8. Is this a good poem?	8. Do you like this poem? Why? Why not? Do others like it? Why? Why not?
9. Which poem is best?	9. Which poem do you like best? Why? Do others differ from your choice? Why?
10. Was it a good story, book, etc.?	10. Did you like the story, book, etc.? Why? Why not? What was your response to it?

11. Is the assignment clear?	11. What are you going to do?
12. Look up the word in the dictionary to find the meaning.	12. If you have no clear meaning for the word, check the dictionary to see if you can find some other words that may help you.
13. Find the meanings of the following words in the dictionary.	13. Check the following words in the dictionary to see if the first statement about each word is about physical or intangible things. Are your meanings for the intangible things as clear as for the concrete?
14. Read the selection until you understand what it means.	14. Read the selection to see if you can discover any clues that can help you decide what the author may have meant.
15. Select the word that has the same meaning as the underlined word.	15. Select the word for which you have about the same meaning as for the underlined word.
16. We are going to study how language operates.	16. We are going to study how people operate their language in different situations.
17. We are going to study how language works in advertising.	17. We are going to study how advertisers work with language.
18. We will study how language works in science and politics.	18. We will try to discover whether scientists and politicians use language differently.
19. Vocabulary development consists of learning the meanings of new words.	19. Vocabulary development consists of learning new meanings for words.
20. Words are constantly taking on new meanings.	20. People keep developing new meanings for words and for what they observe.
21. Scientists are successful in their work because there they use a precise language.	21. Scientists may be successful in their work because there they are precise in their use of language.
22. Language is dynamic; it is alive; its meanings keep changing.	22. People are dynamic; they are alive and their meanings for language keep changing.
23. We should study language for its own sake.	23. We should study language to improve our language behavior.

You may want to check yourself against the two sets of questions and statements listed above. You may want to add some questions and statements to each list. Earlier, it was indicated that the items on the left are heard more frequently in classrooms than are those on the right. Do you think that would be true for your school? For your department or grade level? In general, did you feel more comfortable with the items on the left or on the right? Were there exceptions?

If so, can you identify the exceptions? Can you determine why? Which questions do you usually ask? Which statements do you usually make in talking to your students when giving or explaining assignments? Which questions seem to imply a right answer? In general, is your classroom behavior more consistent with the items on the left or on the right? In general, are your assignments more consistent with the items on the left or on the right?

Which set of questions and statements do you feel are more valid? Are

there exceptions? Would you be willing to explore the two sets of questions and statements with other English teachers or other elementary teachers at the same grade level? With teachers in other subject areas or other grade levels? Would you be willing to explore them with your students? Do you feel that it would be desirable for teachers to model language patterns in the classroom that are more consistent with those on the right? Do you think it is possible for adults to make that much change in their language behavior? Would you be willing to try if other teachers were trying at the same time?

An attempt has been made to keep the sample of classroom activities included in this publication consistent with the questions and statements on the right — those based upon or consistent with: "People have meanings for words."

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"I'll bet you'd scold me if I put my thumb in a pie."

By Bill Keane, reprinted courtesy The Register and Tribune Syndicate.

Language and Communication Illusions and Why

THE "INTRODUCTION" STRESSED the importance of understanding the role of language in the communicative process. In the last section, an attempt was made to examine responsible and irresponsible uses of language in talking about teaching and learning. It was suggested that most of our teaching behavior seems to be consistent with the words we use in talking about teaching and learning, that many of those words have been borrowed from our use of them in talking about our physical world — in which case, we seem to be using them metaphorically. Yet our behavior seems to imply that we are, in fact, using and responding to them literally.

In the last section, we suggested that it might be better to talk about making, creating, or generating knowledge and understanding rather than to impart, transmit, convey, or even to communicate knowledge and understandings. What changes in teacher behavior would be necessary if we were to consider the teacher's responsibility to be that of helping students create or generate knowledge and understandings rather than to impart, transmit, or convey knowledge and understandings to them?

Perhaps it would be helpful in understanding why we talk the way we do about teaching and learning if, first, we examine the way we talk about our physical universe. When man viewed the sun as moving around the earth every twenty-four hours, we developed patterns of speech for describing the situation that were consistent with our illusion: "The sun comes up in the east and goes down in the west." Even after we developed different ways of viewing the relationships between the sun and the earth, we maintained the language patterns that were consistent with our old illusion and which tended to reinforce that illusion.

Since we have failed to invent new language patterns to describe our present view of the sun-earth relationships, every child must undergo the difficult task of overcoming his illusion about the sun and the earth while listening to language patterns from adults which tend to reinforce his illusion. As a result of our recent space explorations, we are now just beginning to talk about "outer space," about "out there" instead of "up there." The astronauts on the moon have started to talk more realistically about looking "back toward earth" rather than "down at earth."

Perhaps if we look briefly at our language learning from early childhood, we can begin to discover why we may have developed some illusions about language in relation to the concrete world outside us and the abstract world inside us. Perhaps all of us who were born with normal sensory organs started our language learning in pretty much the same way. We started out learning the names of physical things we could see and touch and feel: the names of the two people closest to us, "Mama" and "Daddy"; the names of different parts of the human anatomy such as eye, nose, mouth, chin, ear, hair, arm, leg, hand, foot, toe, etc.

Often the naming game was reversed. We would say the word and our parents would point to the thing; or the parents would point to the thing and we would say the word. It wasn't long until the sound of the word immediately stimulated a memory of the thing — a visual image. It was almost as though the word was the thing. It soon seemed as though we could transmit our image to the other person simply by saying the word. At about the same time we were learning the names of physical activities: eat, drink, walk, run, play, etc. And again it seemed that the word was the thing; it stimulated a memory of the physical activity — a visual image, plus the feel of the activity involved. And again it seemed that we could transmit the image and/or the feeling to another person simply by saying the word. And the converse seemed to be happening.

As we grew older, we began to hear words that were used to represent the intangible world of ideas, attitudes, feelings, and relationships. We began to develop patterns of reactions within us concerning such words as: good and bad, right and wrong, correct and incorrect, true and false, justice and injustice, responsible and irresponsible, honest and dishonest, moral and immoral, ugly and beautiful, etc.

Perhaps the mere fact that we have these pairs of what we call "judgment terms" in our language should cause us to wonder how and why we developed a dichotomy of terms to represent extreme opposites in judgments, and why we tend to behave as though people and their actions should be labeled as one or the other. And why do we seem to be offended when another person uses a term that is the opposite of the one we have used?

It may be that our early language experience with the concrete world which provided us with specific labels for specific things tended to create the illusion that a thing is what it is; and since the label stimulates the image of the thing, then we react to the word as though it is the thing. Otherwise, why do we so often hear such expressions as: "We should call a spade a spade because that's what it is!" Or "Hoodlums are hoodlums and should be treated as

Some Call it Progress

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hoodlums!" Or "Garbage is garbage; men are men; women are women; and laziness is laziness, and I know laziness when I see *it*!"?

The little word "is" has been viewed as the most troublesome word in our language, since it enables us to make statements of inference, opinion, and judgment that sound like statements of fact — creating the illusion that we have made factual statements. Statements such as "he *is* a farmer" and "he *is* a liar" look and sound much the same. "He is a farmer" can be verified, and when verified can be considered a statement of fact. "He is a liar," on the other hand, cannot be verified; for it implies that the person willfully misstated a fact. Yet it is almost impossible to know what is going on inside another person's mind. Furthermore, "he is a liar" involves a prediction that the person will lie again, and a prediction cannot be considered a statement of fact. We can make statements about the future only in terms of probability.

The word "is" also causes trouble when we use it in formulating questions about the intangible world of ideas, feelings, and relationships. Questions such as: "What is it?" "What is a verb?" "What is a noun?" "What is English?" "What is reading?" all tend to create the illusion that they can be answered, and

that the answers would start with "It is . . ." "A noun is . . ." "English is . . .", etc. Since these are forms for starting statements of fact, and since it is difficult to make statements of fact about the intangible world of ideas, feelings, and relationships, such questions and answers are likely to cause trouble — to start 'Tis-'Tain't arguments.

Linguists have found what seems to be a more satisfactory way of dealing with nouns and verbs. They ask not what it *is* but "How does it pattern in English?" So rather than to ask "What is reading?" it might be better to ask "What do we do when we read?" The latter question, in each case, tends to lead us into thinking and talking about what can be observed, about what it may be possible to make statements of fact, and about things that are less likely to stimulate 'Tis-'Tain't arguments. It might be worth the effort to try to eliminate the word "is" from our questions and statements, except when dealing with facts that can be verified. We might avoid the illusion that we are thinking and talking sense when we may not be.

If what we have been saying is valid, and since what we have been talking about seems to be far removed from the physical world, hasn't it been a waste of time to have said it? It may have been. On the other hand, we have tried to stay as close as possible to concrete, language-behavior situations. We have not been trying to transmit ideas to you; we have been trying to stimulate you into re-examining your own language experiences and your ideas about them.

If we can overcome the illusion that we can transmit our ideas and thoughts to others through the use of language, the illusion that words have meanings or carry meanings, and fully understand why, we may be in a position to take some very important steps toward improving our own learning, toward developing better learning experiences for our students, and toward reducing human conflict to the point where mankind will have a good chance to survive!

Language, Literature and Communication

LITERATURE CAN PROVIDE an excellent vicarious means for students to discover how the use of language affects people behavior. They can raise questions about why things happen, or why people act in certain ways in literary selections or in films. They can discover how the characters of fiction are using language or are being affected by the language use of other characters.

Normally, it is easier to critically examine the language behavior of others than to examine our own. Perhaps the soundest procedure would be to study the language behavior of literary characters, then move to an examination of the language behavior that is similar in the world around them, and, finally, to try to check on their own language use.

The following categories may be useful for organizing a study of language behavior through literature — as a starter, anyway:

1. discovering how language use by others can affect a person's self-image,
2. discovering how language use reflects cultural values,
3. discovering how language use in war makes violence appear more acceptable,
4. discovering how language use reflects the user's biases,
5. discovering how language use can contribute to prejudice about race, sex, class, religion, or nationality.

Reading, Language and Literature
Conflict, Learning and Appreciation

WE HAVE NOT PLACED "Reading, Language and Literature" at this point in our sequence because we consider reading and literature of less importance. In fact we can't study words (language) without attention to literature. We can't do very much meaningful work with words in isolation. Our focus, however, may not be quite the same as found in most treatments of literature. We are using the term "literature" quite broadly to include both print and nonprint materials portraying man's interaction with his total environment, including man. But, since our focus, at the moment, is on "Reading, Language and Literature," we will be restricting our treatment to print literature — how we react to and interact with print.

For the most part, goals for *teaching* literature have stressed the development of the habit of reading good literature, and the development of a love for good literature. How successful have we been? We can't answer this question with any degree of certainty. According to a study of adult reading habits by ETS[1] in 1972, only 33 per cent of us were reading a book at the time of the survey. It was pointed out that readers had a higher socio-economic index than nonreaders. Although such a correlation does not prove a cause and effect relationship, perhaps we should be asking ourselves how well we are doing with the lower two-thirds of our students.

Can our Language Arts programs be given credit for the book reading that is being done today? Would those people have read the same books even if they had never had a Language Arts Course in our secondary schools? Can we ever know? When have we developed the *habit* of reading *what*? Newspapers? Magazines? Paperbacks? What parts of the newspaper do we have a habit of reading? What kinds of magazines? What kinds of books? When do we have a love for good literature? How do we define good literature? For what purposes do we read? For enjoyment? For recreation? For self-development?

The Sacred Cow in America

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[1]Trismen, Donald A. of the Educational Testing Service (ETS), "Adult Readers: Activities and Goals." Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois, April, 1972.

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Do we have any 'sacred cows' among the selections of literature we choose to use with our students? What do we mean by 'sacred cows'?

How do we select from the vast supply of reading materials that which will help us with our self-development? How do we relate what we read to the real world around us? Do we consider the newspaper as a source for good literature? What parts of newspapers? How many of our students can answer these questions? How many of us can answer them?

Harry Overstreet once developed the thesis that the newspaper's front page is based on the formula of "catastrophe and conflict." History books are filled with conflict that makes up a large part of history's catastrophes. It seems that man's history is a continuing story of his conflict with the elements, with nature, with him/herself, or with other people. Indeed, literature itself seems to be a literature of conflict.

Conflict in today's world, even its threat to our survival, might not be quite so tragic if it were not for the fact that current conflict takes so much of our energy and money that we have little left for constructive efforts toward resolving the multiple crises facing our society. Since so much of our literature is filled with conflict situations, it may provide us with one of our richest sources for exploring the language of conflict, or the language of cooperation. If such an exploration can be made meaningful for the students, perhaps "literature appreciation" will develop naturally and the desire to read more will lead to the habit of reading. Let's explore a few possibilities.

First, let's examine an actual situation. A class of Black students was sleeping through a teacher's attempt to "teach" poetry from a regular anthology. She requested help from Gerald Weinstein. After considerable searching, Weinstein located a poem which he thought might provide a starting point. It was the poem "Motto"[2] by Langston Hughes, a Black poet. He made copies for the entire class and arranged with the regular teacher to try it out with the class:

I play it cool and dig all jive;

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The students came to life. They appeared to like the poem. After a lengthy discussion (defining some of the terms through acting them out), Weinstein was able to demonstrate that he knew the students' jive language much better than they knew his. Then he asked: "Who has a better chance of staying alive, you or me?" The students responded that he did. "Why?"

"Because you know more than one kind of jive."

Weinstein responded: "You know one kind and it's beautiful; but if you're going to stay alive, you'll have to learn some other kinds."

What would have happened if Weinstein had said, "You know one kind, but it's bad and ugly; it's about time for you to learn good English — the beautiful English spoken by educated people!"? Probably he would have lost the rapport that he had developed up to that time. On the other hand, if he had been capable of making the latter statement, he probably would not have started out as he did. He would not have established a rapport with the students at the beginning. He might not have selected the poem "Motto" for study in the first place. Neither would his behavior have been consistent with the nature of the poem.

The poem not only deals with conflict and one way of avoiding it, but Weinstein used the poem to deal with conflict between teacher and students, or to avoid conflict with them. The poem was relevant to the lives of those students, partly because it was written in their kind of talk and partly because it dealt with "staying alive." Perhaps this poem did more to help those young people develop an appreciation for literature than any amount of discussion about art form could have done in any length of time. The expressed desire to read more poems by Langston Hughes and their subsequent reading of them

[2] From *the Panther and The Lash: Poems of Our Times* by Langston Hughes, copyright 1951 by Langston Hughes. Reprinted with permission of Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

provided evidence that those students had developed an appreciation for the poetry of one poet — without one word being said about "appreciation of good poetry," without one word concerning poetic form.

This poem, and the way Weinstein used it, got the students involved in talking about some of their own conflict experiences and the role of language in those experiences. This one short poem provided the stimulus for a meaningful discussion for an entire class period. A few more periods might have been used profitably for having the students write about conflict situations in which they had been involved, indicating who said what to whom with what effect, trying to discover the role of words in each conflict situation. Such written descriptions might lead to further meaningful discussions and evaluations. So what? Do we dare try some experiments in our use of different kinds of jive in different kinds of situations? What kinds of experiments would be most profitable? Who wants to try which one? Can we profit from each other's experiments? How?

Who else has written about language and behavior? Do any of those people have other points of view which might help us? If so, what are they? Can we check out those ideas in real life situations as experiments? If so, how? In this brief examination of the use of the poem "Motto," we have been trying to indicate some of the possibilities of literature for developing better understanding of the role of language in conflict — in order to reduce conflict to a tolerable level, for developing realistic learning situations, and for developing a real appreciation of the written word (others and our own) and its potential for helping us to manage our lives more effectively.

At the same time, we have been trying to indicate the urgent need for dealing with the English language arts as an integrated whole — reading, language, literature, writing, talking, and listening. We hope that we are beginning to stimulate the notion that we should eliminate such expressions as "teaching literature," "teaching language (grammar)," "teaching composition," etc., from our talking and thinking.

We don't want to develop the notion that only poetry deals with conflict, nor that poetry deals only with conflict; but we would like to use one more poem to illustrate the use of poetry to study one element of language usage that may have a great deal to do with conflict. About 20 years ago, Harry Overstreet wrote an article entitled "The Creative Handling of Conflict," published in *The Saturday Review*.[3] The article was primarily an analysis of the poem "Hate,"[4] by James Stephens:

My enemy came nigh,

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Thus far, the scene seems to be all set for conflict to take place. But something happens that turns the conflict situation into a non-conflict situation. And it is the nature of that happening that we want to examine.

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[3]Feb. 20, 1954, pp. 13-14.

[4]From *Collected Poems*, copyright 1909 by *Macmillan Publishing* Co. Reprinted with permission of the publisher.

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What did the enemy do that changed the conflict situation into a non-conflict situation? In addition to evincing an attitude of puzzlement, perplexity, and bewilderment which tend to stimulate sympathy, the enemy did something else. He used the pronouns "we" and "us" which tend to unite people, in contrast to the superior "I" here and the inferior "you" there which tend to antagonize people.

What use of pronouns do we usually hear in conflict situations? Could we develop some projects to observe such situations in order to determine what actually happens? Would we dare to stimulate some conflict situations to see what happens? Could the students try to deal with conflict situations through the use of "We" and "Us" approach, and other situations with "I" here and "You" there approach to see if they can determine whether there is any difference in the results? Could some classroom situations be contrived with only a few students aware of it in order to see what happens to the other students? Could the situation be recorded on tape or videotape so that it might be studied later?

Certainly, this would provide for a different type of pronoun study than we usually find in grammar handbooks, and a different type of literature study than we usually find in our literature books. At the end of the poem "Hate" in one anthology, we found the following "thought-provoking" questions: "Did you expect the ending?" And "How do you feel about its effectiveness?" The emphasis seemed to be more on "form" than on "content."

Moving from poetry to drama, we might suggest that Shakespeare was one of the first writers to indicate an awareness of how we can become imprisoned by our illusions about the relationship between language and reality. For example, he had King Lear behaving as though "words have meanings for people," or that "the word is the thing," when he asked his three daughters to write out their statements of their love for him and he would divide up his estate among them accordingly. Why did Cordelia refuse to write such a statement? Was she aware of the illusion that "words have meanings"? Or did she have other reasons? What clues are available? What about the other two daughters? Were they aware of the illusion? Or did they have other reasons for complying with their father's demand? Can we know for sure? What clues are available? How often do we find people behaving in similar ways? What kinds of statements do we hear that are based on the same kind of illusion? How often? Should we make a check list to use on ourselves? On others? What difference does this kind of language behavior have on our thinking and learning? On our understanding and misunderstanding of other people?

We hope that these examples will serve to stimulate some notions about how we may be able to use literature to better manage our lives, both emotionally and intellectually — how to avoid conflict, how to resolve conflict, and how to better cooperate with our fellowman in today's crises-ridden world.

Although we recognize that there is a place in our school programs for reading literature for "pure" enjoyment, we have not dealt with this aspect of literature at this time. We are not sure that any serious study of literature for this purpose is necessary. This is not to say that there is no enjoyment in the use of literature as suggested here. On the contrary, it seems that the development of meaningful and useful insights can be most enjoyable. It would seem to be a difference in kind. And, we might add, both kinds of enjoyment can add much to our lives.

Values, Decision-Making, and the Future

FROM ATTEMPTS TO HELP STUDENTS learn how to cope with their future, more and more teachers have discovered ways of involving their students in making choices about possible futures through the study of science fiction. The following statement about science fiction in the classroom was prepared by Mrs. Martha Pine, St. Louis Park Senior High School:

"Why teach science fiction in the high school? A primary concern of our younger generation particularly, and our civilized society in general, involves what the future will be like. Science fiction addresses itself directly to that question by picturing possible futures — futures which represent logical or even illogically extreme extrapolations of current practices, values, or theories. Thus, students in science fiction courses or units are introduced to their own 'futures' before they happen, and are thus given the chance to argue their relative merits and to decide which 'futures' they want to see happen. The exploration of science fiction inevitably becomes an exploration of personal and social values; and it provides students with some data to use in trying to shape the kind of future they may desire.

"Another real asset inherent in much modern science fiction is its concern with such current vital issues as ecology, over-population, the role of technology in our society, thought control techniques, and the consequences of war. The students seem to appreciate the immediacy and relevance of these types of subject matter, especially since they are often handled in such palatable and entertaining ways.

"Another interesting consequence of using 'good' science fiction in the classroom is that such study all but eliminates the popular misconception that science fiction is merely fantastic stories about horrible, bug-eyed monsters. After some experiences with science fiction, it is appreciated not as escapist literature but as significant thought-provoking material.

Is He Part of Our Environment?

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Has our environment been developing 'bug-eyed' monsters?

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Can we afford not to deal with fiction that treats our survival problems?
Or should we

... JUST WHISTLE A HAPPY TUNE ...

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"As for methods and directions for exploring science fiction with students, the field is wide open — since it is so new. We group the materials thematically. Our units include: Utopian Visions and Nightmares, Aliens View Men and Men View Aliens, Profiles of the Future, Evolution, Medical Innovations, Five Fears of Man (taken from an *English Journal* article and expanded), Time Travel, and Award Winning Science Fiction Literature. This kind of thematic grouping allows us to give the students a wide choice of materials to read within each unit, materials geared for various reading levels. We subscribe to several science fiction magazines, such as *Analog* and *Extrapolation*, which we find useful."

Martha Q. Pine and Ginger L. Petrafeso have designed a Science Fiction Survival Simulation Game which can be obtained by contacting them at St. Louis Park Senior High School, 6425 W. 33rd Street, St. Louis Park, Minnesota, 55426.

Some Tentative Thematic Groupings of Science Fiction

Definition of Science Fiction and Basic Reading Approaches

R. Heinlein, "Science Fiction: Its Nature, Faults and Virtues" — Essay
R. Bradbury, *Martian Chronicles*

History of Science Fiction

H. G. Wells, *Time Machine*
H. G. Wells, "Country of the Blind"
Jules Verne, "Into Space" — excerpt from *Round the Moon*
M. Shelley, *Frankenstein*

Morality of Scientific Experimentation

M. Shelley, *Frankenstein*
I. Asimov, "The Ugly Little Boy"
D. Keyes, "Flowers for Algernon"
R. Bradbury, "The Long Years" from the *Martian Chronicles*

Utopias

"Utopias," *Time* essay, Jan. 18, '71
A. Huxley, *Brave New World*
G. Orwell, *1984*
R. Bradbury, *Fahrenheit 451*
R. Heinlein, *Beyond This Horizon*
T. Sturgeon, *Venus Plus X*
K. Vonnegut, *Player Piano*
J. Christopher, *White Mountain Trilogy*
R. Sheckley, "Street of Dreams, Feet of Clay"
F. Pohl, "Tunnel Under the World"
R. Sheckley, "Ticket to Tranai"
R. Sheckley, "Pilgrimage to Earth"
W. Tenn, "Null-P"
F. Pohl, "The Midas Plague"
A. Boucher, "Barrier"

Men View Aliens and Aliens View Men

R. Heinlein, *Puppet Masters*
C. Simak, *They Walked Like Men*
C. S. Lewis, *Out of the Silent Planet*
R. Heinlein, *Stranger in a Strange Land*
A. Clarke, *Childhood's End*
G. Dickens, *None But Man*
G. Vidal, *Visit to a Small Planet* (Play)
M. Leinster, "Keyhole"
I. Azimov, "The Gentle Vultures"
R. Zelazny, "A Rose for Ecclesiastes"
R. Bradbury, "Fire Balloons"
S. Weinbaum, "Martian Odyssey"
K. MacLean, "Unhuman Sacrifice"
"The Search for Man's Relatives Among the Stars," *Sat. Review*, June 10, '72

Future Scenarios of Daily Living

A. Clarke, *Profiles of the Future*, esp. Chapters 3, 4, & 5
R. Heinlein, "The Roads Must Roll"

R. Shaw, "Light of Other Days"
C. Simak, "City"
A. Clarke, "I Remember Babylon"
Kahn and Wiener, "Science and Technology: A Framework for Speculation"
"Coming Revolution in Transportation," *National Geographic*, Sept., '69
"Streamliners Without Wheels," *Popular Science*, Dec., '69
"Is There Life on Mars or Beyond?" *Time*, Dec. 13, '71
"New Architecture: Building for Man," *Newsweek*, April 19, '71
"Report from the Future: The Family," *Intellectual Digest*, Sept., '72
"Cities on the Sea," *Saturday Review*, Dec. 4, '71
"Summary of Chapter 9, *Future Shock*," *Literary Cavalcade*, October, '72
A. Toffler, *Future Shock*

Survivors of Atomic Holocaust

J. Wyndham, *Rebirth*
W. Miller, *Canticle for Leibowitz*
P. Boulle, *Planet of the Apes*
A. Norton, *Daybreak 2250 A.D.*
R. Matheson, "Born of Man and Woman"
S. V. Benet, "By the Waters of Babylon"
W. Clark, "Portable Phonograph"
R. Bradbury, "To the Chicago Abyss"
J. Merril, "That Only A Mother"
S. V. Benet, "Nightmare for Future Reference" — a poem

Thought Control

A. Huxley, *Brave New World*
G. Orwell, *1984*
K. Vonnegut, *Sirens of Titan*
R. Blum, *The Simultaneous Man*
R. Bradbury, "The Pedestrian"
D. Knight, "The Analogs"
D. Knight, "Country of the Kind"
R. Heinlein, "They"

Technology Mania

M. Shelley, *Frankenstein*
I. Asimov, *Caves of Steel*
K. Capek, *R.U.R.*
J. Campbell, "Twilight"
I. Asimov, "Runaround"
I. Asimov, "Evidence"
K. Vonnegut, "Epicac"
L. Del Rey, "Helen O'Loy"
H. Vincent, "Rex"
S. V. Benet, "Nightmare #3"—a poem
L. Salomon, "Univac to Univac"—a poem
S. Moskovitz, "The Coming of the Robots"—Essay
N. Hurley, "The Coming of the Humanoids"—Essay

Overpopulation And Its Consequences

Pohl and Kornbluth, *The Space Merchants*
J. Blish, *We All Die Naked*
R. Silverberg, "A Happy Day in 2381" from *The World Inside*
K. Vonnegut, "Welcome to the Monkey House"
F. Pohl, "The Census Takers"
D. Lyle, "The Human Race Has, Maybe, 35 Years Left"—Essay
H. Berk, "People" from *The Sun Grows Cold*

Destruction Of The World

N. Shute, *On the Beach*
M. Roshwald, *Level 7*
R. Bradbury, "There Will Come Soft Rains" in *Martian Chronicles*

Five Fears of Man

"Science Fiction: Bridge Between Two Cultures," *English Journal*, Nov., '71

Implications Of Advances In Medicine

R. Stygler, *Houser's Memory*
M. Crichton, *The Terminal Man*
D. Levy, *The Gods of Foxcroft*

C. Simak, *Why Call Them Back From Heaven?*
R. Silverberg, "How It Was When The Past Went Away"
T. Sturgeon, "Slow Sculpture"
"Genetic Engineering," *Saturday Review*, Aug. 5, '72
"Grave New World," *Saturday Review*, April 8, '72
"Man Into Superman," *Time*, April 19, '71
"Cloning: Asexual Human Reproduction," *Science Digest*, Nov., '69
"The New Man," *Life Educational Reprint*

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Science Fiction, McDougal, Littell, Box 1667, Evanston, Illinois 60204, 1973. An anthology of 33 short stories, essays, and poems, grouped under the headings: Strange Journeys, Man and Machine, Totalitarian Worlds, The Winners, Space Travel, Other Creatures—Other Worlds, and Invasions.

Calkins, Elizabeth & McGhan, Barry, *Teaching Tomorrow*, Pflaum/Standard, 38 West Fifth Street, Dayton, Ohio 45402: A Handbook of Science Fiction for Teachers, 1972.

Toffler, Alvin, Ed., *Learning For Tomorrow*, Vintage Books, A Division of Random House, New York, 1974. (Chapter Fourteen, pp. 234-256, "Science Fiction as an Educational Tool," by Dennis Livingston, deals with The Functions of Science Fiction, A Laboratory of Imagination, Social Issues, and Affective Impact.) As the title indicates, the entire book is concerned with learning for the future.

Futures Attitude Survey

Although incomplete, this type of attitude survey is suggested for use before and after a study program of "science-fiction" or some other type of "Futures" program. Submitted by Nancy Grimes, Nicollet Junior High School, Burnsville, Minnesota.

1. Do you read science fiction? Yes_____, No_____.
2. Why? (If answer is yes)
   _____ I like to think about the future.
   _____ It lets me escape from my own problems.
   _____ It's exciting.
   _____ I read anything I can get my hands on.
   _____ I like to read all types of things.
   _____ Other _____
3. Why not? (If answer is no)
   _____ It doesn't interest me; it's boring.
   _____ I don't read outside of class.
   _____ It's too "kiddish."
   _____ I didn't know there was such a thing.
   _____ Other _____
4. The future is frightening to me because:
   _____ I don't like what's happening in the world today.
   _____ I'm only one person and can't change the way things are.
   _____ History seems to prove that people don't learn from mistakes.
   _____ It's unknown.
   _____ Other _____
   _____ This question doesn't apply to me because I'm not afraid.
5. I'm not frightened of the future because:
   _____ I think people learn from the past and don't repeat their mistakes.
   _____ Although I'm only one person, I can affect the future.
   _____ I like what's happening in the world today; it's exciting.
   _____ It's unknown.
   _____ Other _____
   _____ This question doesn't apply to me because I am frightened.
6. Check the items in the following list that you think will happen within the next 30 years:
   _____ robots to work in homes and factories
   _____ artificial life
   _____ invisibility
   _____ communication with the dead
   _____ levitation (anti-gravity)
   _____ immortality
   _____ death rays
   _____ telepathy
   _____ holograms (3-D glasses to observe and participate in the past and future)
   _____ Other _____
7. Check the items that you think people may have to make decisions about in the fairly near future:
   _____ population
   _____ pollution
   _____ extended life span (to 150 years or more)
   _____ shorter years of work/early retirement
   _____ genetic control/breeding
   _____ Other _____

8. Check the words (terms) for which you think you have a clear meaning in relation to the future:

_____ green revolution
_____ cybernetics
_____ cloning
_____ stability
_____ equilibrium society
_____ technology
_____ bureaucracy
_____ hardware
_____ software
_____ pollution
_____ zero population
_____ exponential growth
_____ cross impact matrix
_____ possible futures
_____ probable futures
_____ alternative futures
_____ power vs. authority
_____ limits of growth
_____ trends
_____ trend analysis.

The Newspaper as "Now" Literature

IN THEIR BOOK *Clarifying Values Through Subject Matter*[1], Harmin, Kirschenbaum, and Simon suggest that "Sugar-coating an irrelevant curriculum with values questions is not the way to clarify and develop values. It will fool no one for very long."

As indicated earlier, literature of the past can be most relevant to the here and now, including science-fiction literature. Any literature in book form has to be written at least several months before publication and has to be based upon the past — even though it may present projections into the future. The daily newspaper, however, is the most current literature available to us. It portrays a panorama of human values in operation today. It presents stories about people and events at home and abroad that are in process. It presents opinions by editors, columnists, and readers (Letters to the Editor). It presents the drama, the tragedy, and the humor of today. It presents all kinds of persuasive appeals to our fears and desires. And it presents all kinds of raw data which we call facts.

The newspaper presents the entire gamut of language usage from the ridiculous to the sublime, sins of omission and sins of commission. It contains all kinds of generalizations, from the unsupported to the fully supported, and all kinds of words that indicate the bias of the writer. It contains a vast variety of propaganda devices designed to affect our behavior — all available for study in detail. And it contains human interest stories that touch on the humanizing influences operating in our society right now.

Recently, the *Minneapolis Tribune* published Robert T. Smith's column about Butch, a 17-year-old boy, who had been spending considerable time visiting hospitals and other institutions, engaged in cheering up the handicapped and the fatally ill. The story ended with a brief statement: "Last week Butch died of leukemia."

And since the newspaper is presented in print and pictures of a permanent nature, it is possible to read and to reread, to compare and to contrast, to diagnose and to analyze — all of which is very difficult to do with material presented via radio or television. The sound waves and the light waves are transitory in nature — here this moment and gone the next.

To omit the study of the newspaper in the classroom is to operate on one kind of value; to include the literature of the newspaper in the classroom is to portray another kind of value. The development of competent, habitual newspaper readers is a responsibility we can ill afford to neglect in today's complex society — in which the survival of all may depend upon the informed, intelligent cooperation of each of us. (A value statement.)

Specific aids for using the newspaper in the classroom can be found in the following publications:

1. Shackelford, Hope, *The Newspaper in the Classroom*, Ungraded Edition, Hope Shackelford, 218 N. Madison, Wichita, Kansas 67214, 1969.
2. Downing, Edna, *Units on the Study of the Newspaper for English Classes, Grades 7-12, Minneapolis Star and Tribune*, Minneapolis, Minn. 1970.
3. Lorenz, Mildred, *The Newspaper in the Elementary Classroom*, Minneapolis Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota, n.d.

For specific help to obtain newspapers for use in the classroom, contact:
Glenn Hanna, Education Services Manager, *The Minneapolis Star-Minneapolis Tribune*, 425 Portland Avenue, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55414 (Telephone: 612/372-3929).

OR

Charles Sinks, Education Coordinator, "The Living Textbook Program," *Pioneer Press/Dispatch*, 55 E. 4th Street, St. Paul, Minnesota 55101 (Telephone: 612/222-5011).

[1]Minneapolis, Winston Press, 1973. (25 Groveland Terrace, Minneapolis, MN 55403.)

**"It's better this way —
people won't have time to think."**

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What do we mean by censorship? How many forms of censorship do we recognize? How can censorship problems be resolved?

Censorship and "The Students' Right To Read"

SINCE CENSORSHIP HAS EVER BEEN and continues to be a disturbing issue throughout the country and throughout the world (in public libraries, in school libraries, and in English classrooms), we commend to every school administrator, school board member, librarian, classroom teacher, and parent organization a little booklet entitled: "The Students' Right to Read." It can be obtained from the National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801 — NCTE Stock # 20809. (Copyright, 1972.)

The booklet treats such topics as:

The English Teacher's Purposes and Responsibilities,
The Community's Responsibility.

The booklet outlines A PROGRAM OF ACTION, including:

Procedures for Book Selection
The Legal Problem
Preparing the Community
Defending the Books
Citizen's Request for Reconsideration of a Work (A Form)

Writing,
Language and Communication

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN ALPHABETICAL writing system was an attempt to devise a set of symbols, each of which would represent a specific speech sound. A one-to-one relationship between symbol and sound does exist in some languages. Italian and Turkish are 100 percent phonetic. German and Russian are about 90 percent phonetic. English is about 20 percent phonetic. In English, we use 26 symbols to represent approximately 44 distinct speech sounds. It has been estimated that we have 379 ways of spelling those 44 speech sounds. No wonder that we have reading-writing-spelling difficulties.

Although it may be impossible to make any kind of accurate estimate of the costs in time, energy, misery, and dollars for maintaining our complex spelling system, we know the costs are tremendous. And since correct spelling has been given such a high priority in our society, among the indicators of educational attainment required for employment, teachers have felt obligated to give so much attention to spelling that attention to other important communication competencies has been overlooked. Yet with all of the attention given to spelling, we have always had a substantial number of students who never achieved mastery. So we continue to pay a high price to maintain a needlessly complex writing system in the English language.

Why Writing is Important

At the same time, the values that can be derived from using a system for recording our speech are so great as to be impossible to estimate. To date, however, many of those values have been overlooked in most of our school programs. Some of the most important values to be derived from writing stems from the relative permanence of the written record of our speech in contrast to the transitory nature of the speech sounds we produce.

"Yes, sir, there's virtually nothing this nation cannot do if we set our mind to it!"

By Bill Sanders, courtesy of Publishers-Hall Syndicate.

What values determine our priorities? If we set our mind to it, could we eliminate our slums OR establish a phonetic spelling system over a twelve-year period?

Writing For Ourselves

Too often students are requested to write something for some other person to read — usually for the teacher to read, to correct, and to grade. Too seldom are students helped to write something that will be for their own personal benefit — even if no other person ever reads it. Memories are tricky. They tend to fade quickly with the passage of time. Thoughts are transitory. We think, for the most part, with the symbols we first learned orally. Because of these factors, there are many reasons why we should write for ourselves:

1. We can write to protect ourselves from the fallibility of our memories.
2. We can write to remember what we want or need to remember.
3. We can write to record what we have observed through seeing, listening, tasting, smelling, feeling, etc.
4. We can write to sort out our observations.
5. We can write in order to discover relationships.
6. We can write to improve our learning, our thinking, our behavior.
7. We can write to better plan what we want to do, why we want to do it, and how we can better do it.
8. We can write to sort out our feelings, our prejudices, our likes and dislikes, etc.
9. We can write to improve our creative powers.
10. We can write to become a better person, to improve our self-image.

Writing For Others

When we write for others to read, we need to be extremely cautious. In the first place, although the written symbols are supposed to represent our speech sounds, they are not the sounds and do not fully represent those sounds. The written symbols can never fully represent the tonal quality of our speech. In the second place, although the words we use are supposed to represent specific things, ideas, concepts, feelings, relationships, etc., the memories associated with, or stimulated by, those words are never exactly the same for any two people. In many cases, the memories, thoughts, or feelings associated with a given word or statement are quite different for two specific persons. The lack of awareness of such a difference can be, and often is, the source of conflict between two people or two groups of people, whether the words are spoken or written. In an oral situation, however, there is an opportunity to clarify the differences through careful questioning. Often such an opportunity is not available in connection with what we write. With these cautions in mind, here are some reasons for writing for others:

1. We can write in order to get feedback from others.
2. We can write to influence others (which requires a high degree of responsibility).
3. We can write to help others know us better.
4. We can write to help others know themselves better.
5. We can write in order to improve our feedback to others.
6. We can write in order to share our experiences, etc., with others.

We can write for others, but when we do we are still writing for ourselves. Ruth Bebermeyer* has written a song which says: "'I can talk about you, but when I do, I'm talking about me." This notion has been stated in different ways. In essence, it involves the idea that no two people can perceive things in exactly the same way; so that, when we write (or talk), we can only talk about how we perceive what is out there—whether it is a thing, a person, a behavior, etc. The position presented here is that there are many excellent reasons for writing, that writing can be our most valuable aid for learning, for thinking, for communicating, for living, for loving, etc.

*From the album "I Wonder," Community Psychological Consultants, Inc., 1740 Gulf Drive, St. Louis, Mo. 63130

Writing, Learning, Thinking, Creating

If we consider education as a learning process, and learning as a creative process, perhaps we should consider some of the activities involved in those processes. It seems safe to say that much of our learning involves the process of observing our environment and reacting to it — if we consider observing as involving all of our sensory organs of sight, hearing, taste, touch, and smell — if we consider language (oral and written) as a part of our environment — if we consider reacting as involving both the cognitive and emotional, of organizing, synthesizing, and extrapolating.

What, then, is the role of writing in the learning process? As indicated earlier, thoughts and speech are transitory — here this moment, gone the next. The human memory is fallible. Memories tend to fade with the passage of time. The permanence of writing provides us with a safeguard against the fallibility of our memories. Writing can enable us to organize, to synthesize, to extrapolate to a degree not possible without it.

How many of our observations and of our reactions to them should be recorded? Perhaps there can be no set answer to this question. But probably most of us err on the short side most of the time. In science and mathematics, learning and problem-solving require the recording of observations and of reactions to them. This may partially explain why so many advances have been made in those two areas. Management personnel in business and industry frequently conduct brainstorming sessions to generate new ideas and solutions to problems. In those situations, every statement is recorded for future reference so that nothing is lost. Most creative and productive people are regular pencil users.

For years, "learning to read to learn" has been a familiar cliché in educational circles. Perhaps it is time for "learning to write to learn" to receive similar attention from the primary grades throughout the rest of our lives. What follows will be merely a sketch of some possible approaches to a program for helping students learn to use writing to enhance their creative powers of learning, thinking, and feeling.

In the Primary Grades

During the first year of school, perhaps the major focus would need to be on the use of writing to help the student remember what he has learned that he wants to remember. When the student has learned to read a new word, or words, we should help him write what he has learned so he can take it home to show his parents. Of course, the parents would need to be brought into the strategy so that they will ask the child for his report when he comes home each evening.

The next morning, we should check with the children on the words they had written on the previous day. Did writing help the pupils remember? At the end of the week, we might have the children write all the new words they had learned that week on a single piece of paper. This, too, would be sent home to the parents — not only providing the students with a review experience, but providing the parents with a more meaningful progress report on their child than would be possible with any kind of grade, and it would be a weekly report written by the child.

Later, when the children have learned to write complete sentences, we could stop near the end of the school day and ask the children about the most important thing they had learned that day, and then help them write their statements to take home to their parents. The statements might vary for different students. These, too, would be reviewed the next morning.

Not only would such activities serve to reinforce the students' learning and to help them start developing an appreciation for the importance of writing as an aid to remembering what they want to remember, it could be the

beginning of an excellent public relations program. For the parents would be getting daily and weekly progress reports on their child's success in school. Furthermore, normally when a child comes home from school and the parents ask about what was learned that day, what is the usual response? "Nothing." This reminds us of Hitler's great lie technique: "When repeated often enough, the lie is believed."

Finally, whenever the children have made an exciting new discovery (have learned something new), we may ask: "Is this something you really want to remember?" They have another new entry to make in their "journal" for the week. This type of activity would be appropriate whether the thing learned is in science, arithmetic, social studies, etc. Just as vocabulary development occurs in all areas of learning, writing is for learning in all areas that are explored. Writing is important whenever the students are involved in the planning of any kind of activity: listing the materials needed, organizing the sequence of sub-activities, listing assignments of who is to do what and when, etc.

At the Intermediate Level, or Middle School

At this level, we would suggest merely an extension of the writing activities started at the primary level as we gradually move into more and more complex learning situations. At this level, we could start having small groups of students conduct their own brainstorming sessions, recording all of the ideas suggested, then grouping the ideas into similar and dissimilar groups, establishing priorities, etc.

It might be well to conduct some brainstorming activities without recording the ideas presented so the students will have an opportunity to discover the difference in the amount accomplished with and without the recording, the difference in the amount of time required to accomplish the same goals, and perhaps a difference in the amount of confusion resulting from a lack of recording. Also at this level, students may be involved in using the recorded ideas to stimulate more ideas, both as individuals and in small groups.

Another use of writing at this level could be for helping students improve their understanding of (thinking about) what they read. Students should be helped to discover the main ideas developed in a particular selection, and then to record those ideas, when possible, in outline form. Then they can begin to analyze the supporting details for each idea. Also, they may be helped to discover some rationale for the order of presentation of the main ideas. Without developing such understandings, students may be simply going through the chore of writing down the main ideas without having learned anything from the experience. Then the note-taking experience would be of little value.

At the Secondary Level

When students enter junior high school, the need for the use of writing as a learning-thinking aid becomes imperative. At this time, the student moves (usually) from the self-contained classroom under the direction of a single teacher into a situation where he may be dealing with five or more teachers per day. The student moves from class to class, from teacher to teacher, hour after hour. At no time does any teacher make any reference to what was studied or discussed during the preceding class period. All of a studden, the student is thrust into a situation in which he has the sole responsibility for making sense out of the total school day, day after day. In most cases, he is provided little or no help in guarding against the interference with learning which takes place under such circumstances.

The student's problem resembles the one we have when we attend a double-feature movie, only worse. When we come out of the theater at the end of the second feature, we frequently have trouble recalling what the first feature was about. Is it any wonder that many students have trouble recalling what took place in a specific class on the preceding day? Is it any wonder that students often are unable to produce very much in the way of a coherent response in a free response (discussion or test) situation?

As long as schools maintain the present fragmented, disconnected, daily school programs at the secondary level, the students will need a great deal of sympathy, understanding, and help. Under such circumstances, each teacher should set aside enough time at the end of the class period to have the students write down the most important points learned which need to be remembered for the next day's class. At the end of the week, each teacher might use all of the class period that day to help students pull together (perhaps in outline form) the major ideas developed during the preceding four days. This certainly should not be done as a mechanical exercise, but as an activity in which the students are engaged in discovering relationships, structure, organization, and an understanding which enables them to remember. What we understand, we remember. What we don't understand may be considered as "pure verbalism" and may be quickly forgotten.

Creating (At All Levels)

If we help students learn to use writing to develop the sense of power that comes from discovering their potentials for being creative, for straightening out their thinking about issues and conflicts of deep concern to them, we will not have to force them to write paragraphs or compositions. For they will be writing for themselves, for their own benefit regularly, instead of writing compositions for the teacher to correct and/or grade. Then they will be more likely to write more frequently, and will be more likely to want to share what they have written with others, including their teachers, in order to obtain feedback.

We are not suggesting that all student writing should be incidental, or that students should never be immersed in either expository or creative writing. We are suggesting that students should be involved in much more writing than is possible if most of their writing takes place in language arts classes in composition or creative writing. We are suggesting that if students are involved regularly in writing to remember, in writing to organize their thinking about issues, events, and feelings important to them, all of which enhances their well-being, then they will be better prepared to immerse themselves in the expository and/or creative writing needed to publish a newspaper or magazine. In fact, such a background of writing experiences could result in more students wanting to publish a newspaper or magazine, or both.

In short, we are suggesting that writing is too important to be left entirely to the occasional course in composition or creative writing. If the student is constantly involved in using writing to enhance his well-being by strengthening his learning-feeling-thinking powers, then the student is more likely to develop the internal motivation for writing that will last. There would be a better chance for writing to become a habit, for writing to become the student's most important means for self-actualization.

We should add that the use of writing to achieve better learning, better thinking, and better human relations, should not be restricted to language arts classes. If such goals are to be achieved through the use of writing, we will need the full cooperation of all teachers. There would seem to be no serious objections to such cooperation. For, with the emphasis placed on the use of writing to improve the learning and thinking powers of our students, we have a common objective of equal concern and importance to all teachers.

Oral Language and Communication

ALTHOUGH WE DO NOT KNOW when man first developed his oral language, we can be fairly certain that without an oral language his communication must have been about as limited as that of other animal life. Once man had developed a fairly sophisticated oral language system, he had a powerful tool for communication and for thinking.

As indicated in the section on "Writing," the invention of an alphabetical writing system gave man another powerful tool for thinking, for learning, and for communication. But as powerful as the alphabetical writing system proved to be, it still had some serious limitations. It did not enable man to record accurately his accent, his vocal inflections, his speech tempo, or his tonal quality. This inadequacy of the written language, it was maintained, was partially responsible for the dissatisfaction by some members of the House Judiciary Committee with President Nixon's transcripts of the taped recordings requested by the committee subpoena.

The cold print on a page of paper cannot reveal the variety of emotional nuances of the human voice. The telephone and the radio added more to long distance communication than just the speed of transmission. Then television added still another dimension to distance communication by providing the visual image of the communicator's facial expression and gestures, in addition to the vocal accents, inflections, tonal qualities, and tempo.

In our daily lives, nearly all of us spend more time in oral communication than we do in reading and writing. Accuracy and effectiveness of oral communication requires the ultimate in attention, awareness, and skill, because of the transitory nature of the process. The sound waves (the speech sounds) are here this moment and gone the next. Yet often the accents, inflections, tonal quality, and tempo provide subtle indicators of the communicator's intent that are missing when we are dependent upon the written words alone. Nor can written words portray the subtle nuances of the communicator's constantly changing facial expressions and gestures.

In view of the comments above, it would seem imperative for oral communication to receive its appropriate share of attention in any comprehensive language arts program. Traditionally, however, oral communication has received little attention after the primary grades. "Show and Tell" exercises, so common in kindergarten, almost become nonexistent in the upper grades and in the secondary schools — except in specialized speech courses involving only a small percentage of the students.

For the most part, oral reading practically disappears in the classroom after third grade. If oral reading does occur at the secondary level, it usually happens in a total class situation when often the reader is so self-conscious about making errors in front of the entire class that he inevitably makes more errors than would otherwise occur. Seldom do secondary students read aloud to each other in small informal groups where self-consciousness is reduced to a minimum.

At the upper elementary and secondary levels, vocabulary development usually consists of workbook or dictionary exercises. Seldom do vocabulary exercises involve students in active oral communication, such as role playing and drama followed by discussion. Yet only by such interactions can meanings and understandings be verified and clarified.

A few years ago the National Council of Teachers of English sponsored a study to determine what was happening in the English classes in schools that had reputations for having outstanding programs in language arts. In the vast majority of classes that teachers had described as discussion classes, it was found that the teacher did most of the talking, that only a few students did any talking and their talking was quite limited.

In a class of thirty students, even if the students did all of the talking each student would have an average of less than two minutes of talking time during a fifty-minute period. On the other hand, if the class is subdivided into groups of five students each, then each student could have an average of ten minutes of talking time during a fifty-minute period. And with six groups of students operating at the same time, it becomes impossible for the teacher to do most of the talking. Furthermore, in a small group situation students who never participate in a total class discussion are more willing to take part.
Maximum learning requires involvement.

It should be noted, however, that dividing a class into small groups does not guarantee that more learning will take place. Less learning may occur in small groups — especially if students have not learned how to work effectively in small groups. Students may spend all of their time on fruitless arguments, or the discussion may go off on all types of irrelevant tangents without any central focus. It is for those reasons that David Litsey's article on "Small-Group Training and the English Classroom" was included in this publication.

Since many of the learning activities (lessons) included do suggest small group work by the students, teachers should make certain that their students are adequately prepared for such work in advance. Also, many of the lessons require that each group report its findings or conclusions to the entire class. This will usually be done by one member of the group. It has been found that students are much more comfortable when reporting to the entire group what their groups have decided upon than they are when reporting on their own individual ideas or conclusions. The group reporter has support from his group.

Oral Reading

Reference was made earlier to the decrease in oral reading following the primary grades. To omit the development and maintenance of oral reading skills throughout the language arts program deprives the student of competencies that are badly needed in many school and later life situations. Reading announcements and directions aloud should be done well or the results can be confusion, wasted time, or possibly disaster. And since every student is a prospective parent, he should be well prepared to *enjoy* reading aloud to his/her children.

To *enjoy* reading aloud requires regular practice in reading aloud as an enjoyable experience. For many students, however, reading aloud to a class of 30 fellow students and the teacher can be anything but enjoyable! Not only is the situation fraught with fear, the material the student is asked to read may seldom contain any pleasurable elements for the reader. On the other hand, if a

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Can small group discussions "make that much difference"? Can learning in small groups "make that much difference"?

few minutes were set aside each week for each student to share with a friend or two something that he had really enjoyed reading during the past week, then the student would be making the choice of the material to be read and the situation would not contain the fear of the total class situation.

Furthermore, by developing and maintaining oral reading competencies in non-threatening situations, students can develop confidence in their oral reading competencies to the point that will enable them to read aloud to larger groups and to enjoy doing it. Even then, it may be advisable to provide students time in advance to familiarize themselves thoroughly with the material to be read aloud. Extemporaneous oral reading before a total class should be reserved for those students with advanced skills. Little, if anything, can be achieved by forcing students to read aloud to a large group when they are not capable of doing it well.

Language Study
Concepts and Objectives

THE NEXT FOUR PAGES MAY BE the most important pages in this publication. Pages 50-51 deal with basic understandings concerning language and communication, arranged in a logical sequence. Many of the learning activities included have a reference to one or more of the "Language Concepts" indicated in the upper right-hand corner as basic to that particular lesson. It would be helpful if you would report back as to whether such indications were helpful to you. Since this is a loose-leaf publication, improvements can be incorporated into later additional materials.

Pages 52-53 contain a list of skills and habits related to language and communication that some have considered as the most important skills and habits that influence our communication behavior. They were adapted from a list of danger signals and safety signals in *Explorations in Awareness*, by J. Samuel Bois, Harper, New York, 1957. The danger signal, in each case, became that part of the objective requiring a reduction; the safety signal became that part that should be increased. The sample lessons included, for the most part, deal with some of those objectives, but are not evenly distributed and, perhaps, should not be. Some of those left out may need more attention in the future.

Pages 53-60 were included as a possible help for you to focus attention on the understandings, attitudes, skills, and habits of importance in each aspect of the communication process; and they were included to show the inter-relationships among the objectives in each area — how they cannot and should not be dealt with in isolation.

Language Study Concepts

Understandings

I. **The Role of Language in Education**

Students should become aware that:

A. One of the primary goals of a school is to help the student become a competent learner who is in a continual state of growth and self-discovery

B. This continual state of growth and self-discovery is essential to human survival in its broadest sense

C. Communication is essential for one's fullest growth and self-discovery

D. The development of communication (language) competencies is esential to his or her survival.

II. **Language Symbols and Communication**

A student's language behavior should reflect an awareness that:

A. Communication, as a two-way process, is dependent upon a system of symbols

B. Language symbol meanings are in people, not in the words

C. Communication depends upon mutual agreement, by the sender and receiver, on the referent for the symbol

D. The chances for agreement are greatest when the referent is simple and concrete

E. The chances for agreement decrease when the referent becomes more complex and intangible

F. The chances for agreement are enhanced when the sender and receiver have had common experiences

G. The chances for agreement are least when the number of common experiences are least

H. A person's referent for a symbol varies from time to time:

(1) in relation to new experiences

(2) in relation to different situations or contexts

(3) in relation to the impact of events immediately preceding

I. Symbols can stimulate memories previously associated with them

J. The chances for successful communication are greatest when the speaker/writer and the audience have had the greatest number of common experiences about simple, concrete phenomena

K. The chances for successful communication are least when the speaker/writer and the audience have had the fewest common experiences concerning complex intangibles

L. The speaker/writer can make maximum adaptation when his audience is only one

M. The speaker/writer's ability to adapt decreases with each additional member to his audience

N. The larger the number in the audience, the greater is the need for the speaker/writer to be simple and concrete

O. The greater the variety of experiences among members of the audiance, the greater the need for a variety of illustrations and examples and to be simple and concrete

P. The chances for successful communication are improved when either speaker/writer or the audience is fully aware of the concepts and principles listed above

Q. The chances for successful communication are greatest when *both* senders and receivers are fully aware of the concepts listed above.

III. **Learning How to Learn**

Students should be aware that:

A. Learning, other than memorization, is an active, creative process

B. Learning involves the discovering, or the development, of relationships among the phenomena observed or perceived

C. Learning how to learn involves learning how to discover relationships, how to inquire into relationships

D. The greater the number of experiences observed, the greater the opportunity for learning

E. The greater the ability to discover relationships, the greater the learning from each additional experience observed

F. No one person can observe as many phenomena as two capable observers

G. No two people will perceive relationships in the same phenomena in exactly the same way.

IV. **Learning, Interaction and Communicating**

Students should be aware that:

A. The quality and quantity of learning can be increased when two people interact about their experiences and their perceptions of them

B. Each additional person in an interaction group adds to the richness of potential for learning

C. Each additional person in an interaction group reduces the amount of interaction by each member in a given length of time

D. The maximum productivity of a given number of interactors will vary according to the nature of the individual members

E. Generally, the productive efficiency of a group decreases when the number of members exceeds five or six.

V. **The Relation of Writing to Learning, Thinking and Communicating**

Students should become aware that:

A. Memories tend to fade with the passage of time

B. The mind can focus on a limited number of phenomena at one time

C. Recording one's observations can serve as reminders — memory stimulators

D. Recording one's observations can enable one to search any number of phenomena for relationships

E. Recording one's generalizations about observed phenomena can enable one to search for relationships among one's generalizations

F. Writing, therefore, can become one of man's most important aids for learning, thinking and communicating.

"Skills and Habits"

Objectives

General Goal: *To reduce language practices that lead to misunderstanding and confusion; to increase language practices that lead to understanding and that reduce confusion.*

Specific Objectives:

1. a. To reduce the use of absolute terms, generalities, abstractions of a high order, words that imply "allness";
   b. To increase the use of descriptive terms and lower order abstractions, statements as to who, what, where, when and how much.
2. a. To reduce the use of judgment terms, terms loaded with approval and disapproval;
   b. To increase the use of neutral terms, terms that are as free as possible from bias or slant.
3. a. To reduce the use of "either-or" arguments, passing from one alternative to its extreme opposite, describing things in terms of black and white without any gray shading in between;
   b. To increase the use of terms of "more-or-less," giving consideration to degrees and shades of meaning, avoiding talking about opposites.
4. a. To decrease speaking of the present situation as "just like" another one, of this person as "just like" So-and-so, of this problem as "just like" the one solved previously;
   b. To increase the practice of differentiating carefully between people, situations and problems.
5. a. To reduce the practice of confusing facts that can be verified by anybody, and interpretations, opinions, and judgments that are exclusively our own;
   b. To increase the practice of distinguishing between what is going on and what we feel or understand is going on.
6. a. To decrease the tendency to ramble from one subject to another;
   b. To increase the practice of keeping to the subject under discussion.
7. a. To reduce the practice of quoting authorities to uphold our viewpoint;
   b. To increase the practice of evaluating the situation on its own merits.
8. a. To reduce quibbling on the dictionary meaning of words;
   b. To increase the use of words as mere tokens for what we wish to convey.
9. a. To reduce the practice of talking fast and/or loud;
   b. To increase the practice of talking with deliberation.
10. a. To decrease the practice of interrupting, starting to talk before the other person is finished, contradicting with a quick "yes/but";
    b. To increase the practice of listening with genuine attention, waiting for our turn to speak, beginning with something like "if this is what you mean, then . . . ".
11. a. To reduce the practice of asking rhetorical and tricky questions;
    b. To increase the use of matter-of-fact questions that invite more information.

Body Talk

12. a. To reduce the practice of keeping muscles tense, to move in jerks, to fidget, to twitch;

b. To increase the practice of relaxing, remaining calm and quiet, delaying our reactions.

13. a. To reduce the tendency to get flushed, to grow pale, to screw up our face in knots;
    b. To increase the practice of breathing evenly, of keeping an emerging smile, of keeping our composure.
14. a. To reduce the tendency to take ourselves very seriously;
    b. To increase the tendency to keep our sense of humor.

NOTE: All of the above practices are observable when we become fully aware of the distinctions; also, the results of such practices are observable.

Reading Objectives

ATTITUDES: The student should appreciate the importance of:

1 – relating what is read to one's own experience and of evaluating accordingly
2 – developing an understanding of attitudes, values, and feelings of other people
3 – different forms of literature: plays, poems, fiction, nonfiction
4 – learning vicariously (or making value judgments) from reading
5 – learning to cope with change
6 – self-esteem being enhanced through reading
7 – developing tolerance and compassion for varied segments of one's society through reading
8 – the benefits of pleasure reading — the personal gratification
9 – curiosity — of being an inquirer
10 – self-discipline and perseverance
11 – an ever-expanding self-realization
12 – a constantly enriched personal philosophy
13 – the existence, basis for, and growth of the major value systems of the world
14 – relating to and empathizing with the problems of people from one's own and other cultures
15 – exhibiting a concern for self, others, posterity, etc.
16 – reading analytically and emotionally, knowing the shortcomings of each.

UNDERSTANDINGS: The students should:

1 – recognize that meanings are in people, not in words
2 – recognize that meaning emerges from the interaction of the reader (his recall of personal experiences) and the work
3 – recognize the relationship of the author and his point-of-view to his material.
4 – understand the particular advantages of reading compared to and adjunctive with other media
5 – recognize that today's complex, interdependent society requires a greater degree of cooperation and consideration than ever before
6 – recognize that reading can help develop one's moral and social values
7 – recognize that reading can be self-fulfilling
8 – recognize that reading may be a major influence in social, political and economic change.

SKILLS: The student should have the ability:

1 – to decode easily and automatically — to recognize the relationship between the graphic symbols (including punctuation) and the oral symbols and signals
2 – to follow a sequence of events, etc.
3 – to distinguish main points and details
4 – to recognize cause and effect
5 – to differentiate between figurative and literal language
6 – to interpret figurative language with care
7 – to summarize content
8 – to recognize structure within various forms of literature
9 – to recognize different forms of literature: plays, poems, fiction, nonfiction — with a willingness to accept all types
10 – to adjust reading rate to purpose and nature of material
11 – to recognize the relationship of form, content, style, and language, as a source or key to meaning
12 – to recognize and use the infinite variety of language with its ability to create pleasure and to move one emotionally
13 – to find and use reference materials
14 – to take notes selectively
15 – to identify statements of fact, inference, opinion and judgment
16 – to evaluate pertinence of materials
17 – to identify and evaluate propaganda devices
18 – to recognize the relationship of the author's point-of-view to his material
19 – to become aware of the existence, basis, and growth of the major value systems of the world and to relate to, and to empathize with, the problems of people from one's own and other cultures
20 – to read analytically and emotionally
21 – to think critically
22 – to relate what one has read to other pertinent statements about similar or related ideas
23 – to recognize that each work of literature is, at best, a single statement about man, and that each succeeding work read provides an opportunity to assess the truth of each other statement previously considered, accepted or rejected by the reader
24 – to recognize that each work of literature is an attempt to clarify some assumption about man and his relationship to his universe.

HABITS: The student

1 – copes with change
2 – reads for pleasure and personal gratification
3 – adjusts reading rate to purpose and nature of material
4 – constantly attempts to use the infinite variety of language for his growth and pleasure through wide reading
5 – uses reference materials regularly
6 – takes notes selectively
7 – is constantly expanding his vocabulary
8 – regularly exhibits curiosity – is an active inquirer
9 – exhibits self-discipline and perseverance
10 – exhibits an ever enrichened philosophy
11 – continues to develop a background of referential literature
12 – constantly seeks a broader context for ideas than provided by minimal sources
13 – reads material which takes him beyond the ordinary and which tends to increase his aesthetic awareness
14 – empathizes with situations in literature.

Writing Objectives

ATTITUDES: The student should appreciate the importance of:

1 – writing as a means of protecting oneself from the fallibility of the memory
2 – writing as a means of organizing observations and one's thoughts about them — to improve one's thinking
3 – writing as a means of recording one's feelings in order to assess the pleasant and the unpleasant, the positive and the negative, the beautiful, the ugly, and the indifferent
4 – accepting the attitude expressed in writing by others even though one may disagree with the content
5 – choosing words carefully in relation to meaning and emotion and their likely impact on the reader
6 – recognizing that meanings are in people, not in words, and the need to know as much as possible about the people who will read what one writes
7 – recognizing that punctuation is to help the reader understand what one has written
8 – constantly striving to improve the effectiveness of one's writing
9 – being sensitive to one's total environment
10 – constantly striving to stretch one's imaginative and creative capacities.

UNDERSTANDINGS: The student should understand:

1 – self and others — people
2 – all of the language concepts listed under Language Objectives
3 – as much as possible about one's total environment — past, present and future.

SKILLS: The student should:

1 – be skillful at selective note-taking
2 – be skillful with the mechanics of writing to the extent that his total concentration can be on the content and style
3 – be skillful at dealing with an issue or problem with imagination and creativity
   A. **Cognitive Behavior**
      (1) fluent thinker — flow of thought, quantity
      (2) flexible thinker — variety of ideas, shifts categories
      (3) original thinker — unusual ideas, not obvious
      (4) elaborative thinker — embellishes, stretches, etc.
   B. **Affective Behavior**
      (1) willingness to take risks — skillful in doing so
      (2) preference for complexity — skillful at seeking alternatives
      (3) curiosity — skillful inquirer, seeking new insights
      (4) imaginative — skillful in dreaming up new ideas, in reaching beyond.
4 – be skillful at editing one's own writing.

HABITS: The student should:

1 – be a regular note-taker
2 – be a regular rewriter
3 – have developed regular work habits
4 – have the habit of questioning anything not clear.

Oral Communication Objectives

ATTITUDES: The student

1 – possesses a realistic concept of self
   (a) possesses a self-confidence producing poise
   (b) having a realistic concept of self, believes he/she can express emotions without embarrassment
   (c) has a genuine desire for self-improvement;
2 – believes in honesty of communication
   (a) values ethical, reasoned discourse;
3 – shows interest in people and surroundings
   (a) desires to communicate
   (b) is responsive to needs and desires of others
   (c) empathizes with listeners (audience) and shows concern for fellow-humans;
4 – values objective thinking
   (a) values a search for and the development of knowledge;
5 – is willing to receive and respect without becoming defensive;
6 – is receptive to peer and self-criticism;
7 – values the free exchange of items;
8 – has developed a sense of responsibility for words and actions;
9 – recognizes the dignity of all human beings;
10 – respects different dialects;
11 – respects the ideas of others;
12 – is tolerant of conflicting or opposing views;
13 – wishes to act humanely towards others.

UNDERSTANDINGS: The student should understand the necessity:

1 – to formulate a realistic and comfortable concept of self
2 – to be aware that survival depends on effective communication
3 – to be responsible for one's words and their consequences
4 – to recognize that criticism can be an aid to improvement
5 – to understand how personal values affect the ability to communicate with others
6 – to understand the application of semantic principles
7 – to understand that communication is a two-way process
8 – to understand the advantages of cooperative effort
9 – to understand that expressing emotion is an important part of communication
10 – to realize that oral communication can contribute to the solution of problems
11 – to understand the effectiveness of a positive approach
12 – to respond to the needs and desires of others
13 – to recognize the need for personal warmth and concern for others
14 – to recognize the need for creative thinking
15 – to understand the principles of logical thinking
16 – to select fresh language, rejecting the hackneyed
17 – to select language and ideas appropriate to the speaker, listener and situation
18 – to use voice and nonverbal behavior appropriate to the speaker, listener and situation
19 – to select appropriate media for the message, listeners and situation
20 – to select and evaluate ideas appropriate to the topic.

SKILLS: (Public Speaking): The student becomes skillful in his/her ability:

1 – to recognize the basic parts and processes of oral communication situations—both formal and informal
2 – to choose the best available channels for communication
3 – to choose and narrow a speech topic effectively
4 – to gather resources necessary for the effective development of an idea
5 – to take adequate notes on research
6 – to use logical and critical thought processes and models effectively
7 – to outline a speech into logical sequence for presentation
8 – to use the resources of oral language correctly, concisely, vividly and appropriately
9 – to adapt topics, proofs, arrangement patterns and language style to his/her audience, purpose and occasion
10 – to speak with effective vocal quality, emphasis, volume, rate and articulation
11 – to speak with effective gesture, movement, eye contact and facial expression
12 – to demonstrate poise and self-confidence in oral communication.

SKILLS: (Interpersonal Communication): In addition, the student develops and exhibits skills in conversation and small group situations. He/she can encode and deliver effective "informal" messages because of his/her ability:

1 – to lead or participate effectively in small groups
2 – to encourage others to express their views
3 – to direct group discussion toward rational and efficient problem-solving
4 – to participate in interaction with courtesy, tact, and respect for individual and group feelings
5 – to keep discussion on the subject moving without distraction or irrelevant sidetracks
6 – to express responsible opinions and support for them
7 – to discuss events, people, things and problems without committing semantic errors of "allness," absolutism, "over-generalization," or language "bias"
8 – to distinguish causes from effects and signs from conclusions
9 – to seek greater knowledge of problems and their possible solutions
10 – to draw responsible, rational conclusions
11 – to explain one's contributions to discussion clearly
12 – to keep one's sense of humor, and to maintain a friendly atmosphere of idea exchange.

HABITS: The student has the ability:

1 – to articulate clearly and audibly
2 – to adjust language to fit the situation and the people
3 – to adjust nonverbal behavior to fit the situation and the people
4 – to think critically and logically rather than accept everything at face value (questioning and explaining)
5 – to show respect for the ideas of others
6 – to demonstrate responsibility for words and actions
7 – to demonstrate competence in use of voice, gesture, movement (kinesics), eye contact and facial expression
8 – to make an effort to express appropriate thoughts and feelings
9 – to empathize with listeners (audience)
10 – to show interest in surroundings and other people
11 – to accept and evaluate criticism
12 – to demonstrate tolerance of conflicting or opposing views and to accept the imperfections of others
13 – to demonstrate friendliness through actions of openness and concern
14 – to encourage others to express themselves.

Listening Objectives

ATTITUDES: Student should develop:

1 – willingness to adopt the psychological set of the speaker while listening
2 – willingness to listen to prose and poetry
3 – willingness to listen to people who speak differently
4 – willingness to investigate oral statements
5 – respect for the importance of the remarks of others to facilitate communication
6 – willingness to hear many sides of an issue
7 – willingness to relate to the person and his/her message
8 – willingness to reserve judgment while listening
9 – willingness to recognize one's emotions and prejudice while listening
10 – willingness to recognize listening as the most constructive and demanding of communicative activities.

UNDERSTANDINGS: Student should know:

1 – that people communicate most often through spoken symbols and paralanguage
2 – that spoken symbols never convey the exact referent
3 – that differing experiences and background determine variants in referent for the symbol
4 – that the more abstract the word meaning, the greater the possibility of misinterpreting
5 – that communication is a two-way process: a speaker's meaning, a symbol used, and a listener's meaning
6 – that a speaker's meaning for words will differ from the listener's meaning for the same words
7 – that words heard may arouse feelings in the listener that may differ from those of the speaker
8 – the types of propaganda and the emotional feeling they are intended to evoke
9 – that body language extends the dimension of spoken symbols
10 – the functions of ritual and communicative language
11 – that the speaker's purpose shapes the message

SKILLS: Student should be able to:

1 – concentrate while listening actively
2 – follow directions accurately
3 – identify the speaker's ideas
4 – take notes on main ideas
5 – react to the speaker's ideas and feelings
6 – identify levels of meaning in oral communication
7 – activate exchange and clarification of ideas
8 – recognize intent, tone and purpose in the speaker's message
9 – arbitrarily separate fact from opinion, myth from reality, inference from judgment
10 – hold in check one's emotions and prejudices while listening.

Viewing Objectives

ATTITUDES: A student should develop a positive attitude toward self and the world through developing

1 – his skill to select and appreciate constructive and beneficial viewing matter
2 – his sense of appreciation of the visual arts
3 – his ability to use a visual presentation as a beginning of an attitude formulation
4 – the quality of open-mindedness.

UNDERSTANDINGS: The student should understand:

1 – the purpose of man-made presentations
2 – the influence of ads, news, dramatic performances
3 – the standards for judging acting, drama, news, documentaries, commentaries, comedies and variety shows
4 – the components of the audience for whom the material is intended
5 – the advantages and disadvantages of different media to differing audiences
6 – that viewing can have the same purposes and validity as reading and listening
7 – that in viewing much is communicated through nonverbal symbols
8 – that method and manner of presentation is the work of people with their own biases and attitudes
9 – that material presented is, for the most part, a condensation and/or selection of material which influences its meaning and effect
10 – that much of what is seen may be the direct or indirect result of a pursuit of the profit motive
11 – that a presentation can be used as a beginning or as an addition to one's own attitude toward a given subject
12 – the choices in the mechanics and techniques used in preparing a presentation
13 – that other resources may be used to check the validity of a presentation
14 – that one's own responses are influenced by one's own physical disposition and environment
15 – the transposition process of data from other times and places to contemporary times.

UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS: The student should be able to:

1 –identify visual persuasion techniques, including logical processes and affective appeals such as use of color, placement, sequence, and repetition
2 – differentiate between visual fact (representation) and visual fiction (creation/fabrication)
3 – differentiate between visual fact (representation) and visual metaphor (imagery, allegory, fantasy)
4 – differentiate between visual fact (representation) and visual commentary (selection/slanting)
5 – recognize visual appeals (color, shape, familiarity)
6 – recognize visual stereotypes in film and television, including hero/heroine, villain, man, woman, child, family, professional, ethnic group
7 – identify visual logic and visual fallacy
8 – select and appreciate viewing materials in terms of pre-established personal criteria

9 – maintain a distinction between reality and the image of reality, between visual territories and visual maps
10 – evaluate visual content in terms of pre-established criteria
11 – transpose visual content, applying it to other times, other places, other situations
12 – identify the audience for whom specific visual material is intended
13 – recognize that each medium of visual communication has unique advantages and disadvantages
14 – use a visual presentation to initiate and modify the formation of attitudes
15 – identify the mechanical and technical aspects of a visual presentation.

HABITS: The student should:
1 – select constructive and beneficial materials
2 – evaluate materials new to him
3 – facilitate his search for new materials/experiences
4 – compare easily his present attitudes and conclusions with those related to previous experience
5 – be aware of and use resources to check the validity of an experience
6 – question the purpose, worth, and techniques of man-made visual materials.

Sample Lessons

(Learning Activities)

THE FOLLOWING LESSONS ARE DIVIDED into two sections:

I. Lessons are organized according to major objectives; and, under each objective, the lessons are organized from the simple to the complex, rather than by grade levels.

II. Lessons are organized in sequence under two headings:
   A. Understanding and appreciating differences in speech dialect (originally designed for use with upper elementary students);
   B. General Semantics (orginally designed for use with secondary students for the purpose of reducing prejudice).

Originally, the lessons in Section I were labeled Primary, Intermediate, Junior H.S., and Senor H.S. The labels were removed on the basis of teacher reactions to the effect that many of the lessons designed for older students could be easily adapted for younger children, and vice versa. So the lessons are grouped under major objectives, with the lessons under each objective grouped with those lessons designed for younger students first and those designed for the older students last—from kindergarten through senior high school.

It should be noted that, in both sections, all of the major objectives are focused on the development of attitudes, understandings, skills, and habits considered most important for the improvement of human communication through a better understanding of what is going on when we try to communicate.

In Section IIA, the sequence of lessons on speech dialect focuses on the naturalness of all speech dialects, on the notion that a different dialect has nothing to do with superiority or inferiority. It is proposed that the development of such attitudes and understandings should contribute significantly to improving communications among speakers of different dialects.

In Section IIB, the sequence of lessons on General Semantics was designed specifically for the reduction of prejudice by Dr. J. A. Black, Department of English Chairperson, Darien Senior High School, Darien, Connecticut, as a part of his dissertation at New York University. Because of the success of Dr. Black's experiment with the sequence in New York City, the sequence has been retained. However, this does not mean that the best results can be obtained elsewhere only by retaining the same sequence.

Although there is considerable research evidence that language and communication lessons similar to those included here have resulted in a reduction of prejudice, improvement in student writing, higher scores on critical thinking and on critical reading tests, and higher scores on certain aspects of creativity tests, more experimenting needs to be done with different sequences for students of differing ages and backgrounds.

Section I: Lessons

Objectives: 1 and 11

Major Activity

Viewing Object Pictures in Order to Formulate Questions

General Objective

Through viewing the object pictures, the children will relate the pictures to their own past or present experience.

Specific Objective

Use of the inquiry techniques will provide opportunities for verbal language development and for meaningful word association, thus increasing retention.

Resources

Film strips or pictures

Conditions

Comfortable classroom atmosphere

Time

One or more class periods

Procedure

1. Project a frame or object picture;
2. Ask concrete questions concerning the following points:
   a. Color of object(s)
   b. Number of objects and the number of features of each object—hand, feet, wings, etc.
   c. Size and shape
   d. Positions or the relationship of one object to another—below, above, first, right side, etc.
   e. Names of component parts of the object—arm, tail, handle, etc.
3. Ask experiental questions to help children recall and relate the object pictures to their own past or present experiences—

   "What can you do to and with the object?"
   If the question is in connection with viewing a picture of a dog, usually the child's response will be limited to "walk him," "feed him," or "pet him." Guide responses with "Can you" questions so they can discover that they can "play with, love, smile at, dream about, hurry home to, etc."
   Eliciting these interactions will be crucial in mastery of comprehension skills.
4. Formulate abstract questions to stimulate and motivate toward investigating many different facets of the objects, and to view them in broader perspective:
   a. What are some other objects that have the same characteristics as the objects being viewed?
   b. What makes the object work?
   c. What are some atypical ways that the object can be used?

Evaluation

Use other object filmstrips or object pictures and have the children formulate questions. This could be done by allowing a small group to preview a visual, giving them the questioning responsibility.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through the Use of "Etc."

General Objective

The student will demonstrate that because we cannot see all there is to see we cannot say all there is to say about anything.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate the need for the use of *etcetera* silently, out loud, or in writing to remind us that there is more to be said.

Resources

Catalog, easy-to-read informational books on a variety of subjects, local business brochures

Conditions

Comfortable classroom atmosphere

Time

Depends on specific situation

Procedure

1. Ask pupils to close their eyes and bury their heads on their desks. Then ask questions about things in the room, for example (write responses on chalkboard):
   a. How many windows are there in the room?
   b. Are they opened or closed?
   c. What is on my desk?
   d. What color clothes am I wearing?
   e. What color eyes do I have? — etc.

   Then ask students to open their eyes and discuss their answers on the board and compare them with reality. Point out that what we see is even linked to sex; e.g., girls may notice clothes and color of eyes more than boys, etc.
2. Read a selection from one of the resource references to the students. Has it said all there is to say about the school or do the students still have questions to ask?
3. If the student has a particular fear or worry about some situation that he/she thinks he/she knows "all" about, check with the other students to see whether there is more to be said or learned.
4. Have the students share incidents where arguments and misunderstandings resulted because someone forgot that we cannot say "all" about anything.

Evaluation

Divide students into groups. To each group give a statement such as:

I hate vegetables
Eskimos live in igloos
She's a grumpy teacher
Indians wear moccasins
Grandmas bake bread.

Have students discuss and share with the older students proof that their statement is not saying all there is to be said about the subject. Even though the students may have exhausted their knowledge of the subject, there may be more to be said, e.g., "etcetera."

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Role-Playing Speaking Situations

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how one's choice of words that have positive connotations for one's listener will help one survive more successfully through getting the cooperation of others in one's daily life.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how to attempt to predict reactions to the connotation of words in stress situations.

Resources

Classroom, two toy telephones, situations written on slips of paper or presented verbally to students

Conditions

Room for class to observe complainer and receiver of the complaint who are seated apart with backs to each other

Time

Approximately 5 minutes for each set of 2 students

Procedure

1. Teacher explains that when we are angry or upset, or when someone is upset with us, we need to know how to handle the situation so we don't make permanent enemies.
2. Class lists such possible situations on the board as:
   a. Tom always loses his temper
   b. Brian tripped me
   c. My mother didn't give me enough money for lunch
   d. The apple I bought was rotten
   e. Pam pulled up her neighbor's flowers
   f. The kids always take my eraser.
3. Teacher demonstrates two or three situations with a student.
4. Students choose a partner.
5. Each set of students chooses a situation.
6. Each set takes a turn at the phones—one role-plays the complainer, the other the one receiving the complaint.
7. Class evaluates the handling of the situation and identifies words or phrases used that had a positive or negative connotation and the reaction of the listener to the words.
8. Small groups identify techniques they saw being used successfully, e.g.:
   a. Use of questioning rather than an angry response
   b. Restatement of complainer's feelings as separated from the facts
   c. Attempt to isolate facts from feelings by use of what, when, where and whom questions
   d. Description of incident rather than complainer's feelings to get action
   e. Use of words with positive connotations.

Evaluation

A few sets of students plan a situation and role play it.
Other possible situations:

a) Child has pulled up your flowers
b) Dog killed your cat
c) The store overcharged you
d) The merchandise you bought was faulty
e) Your dress/suit wasn't delivered in time for your confirmation/wedding.

Major Activity

Identifying over-generalizations

General Objective

To reduce the use of absolute terms, generalities, abstractions, words that imply "allness."

Specific Objective

To contest the validity of certain frequently heard generalizations.

Resources

Access to library materials, statistics of certain public agencies (perhaps)

Conditions

Classroom

Time

Two class periods or longer

Procedure

Have the class volunteer some statements they have heard others make such as:

Girls are uncoordinated.
Men with long hair and beards are hippies. (Problem: What is a hippie?)
Don't trust anyone over 30. (Over 12?)
Dogs make good pets.
People "sponge" off welfare.
Doctors are overpaid.
The suburbs are safer than the cities.

Have the children select one or two statements in which they are most interested and collect research materials—some which support and some which refute the statements.

Evaluation

At a later date, have children present their findings. Were the "allness" statements able to be completely supported? Discuss. How many counter-examples are enough to counteract statements that imply "allness"? Discuss why humans might be prone to making such all-inclusive statements. Do we find ourselves making them? How do we react to others who make statements that suggest "allness"?

Objectives: 1 and 4

Major Activity

Identifying Words that Hurt People

General Objective

To reduce the use of absolute terms, generalities, words that imply "allness," to reduce the use of judgment terms, terms loaded with approval and disapproval.

Specific Objective

To reduce the practice of "classifying" persons.

Resources

Recording of "You're Just a Kid," "The Label Game"; access to school library

Conditions

Classroom

Time

Two class periods or longer

Procedure

Discuss: What does this selection mean to you? Have you ever had experiences after which you felt like you're "just a kid"?

The teacher may relate an instance or two of "kid power": 9-year-old child, nephew of a mathematician, was the inventor of the word for the largest number given a name in the world of mathematics. He called the number one with a hundred zeros after it a *googol*, and this name still remains!

What instances can you think of in which children have made contributions to humankind? (Let the children research and report their findings.) Discuss: What can we, as "kids," do to educate the adult population into acknowledging that our ideas are worthwhile? Look at the poem again. Try substituting other names of groups for the word *kid*. Historically, has this ever been done, with the majority inflicting an inferior status upon another group? (Women, Blacks.)

Play the record, "The Label Game." How does this relate to what we've already discussed? Might persons' attitudes toward us cause *us* to feel inadequate? What steps have ever been taken, or could or should be taken, to eliminate these feelings? Does the responsibility lie with the "inflictor"? The "inflictee"? Or both? Discuss. Does our use of language play a part in the feelings we cause in others? How are our attitudes reflected in our speech?

Evaluation

During another class period, have children present their reports on persons who have proven to themselves and/or others that they were much more capable than others thought they were. (Perhaps the student himself is that person.)

Objective: 1

Language Concepts: IIB, C, D, E

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Recording in Writing the Student's Words Used Orally to Describe Something

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the degree of abstractness of a word increases the range of the varieties of meaning people have for it.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how abstractions of a high order hamper communication and how the use of descriptive terms and lower order abstractions facilitates communication.

Resources

Paper and pen

Conditions

Ordinary classroom

Time

One hour

Procedure

1. Divide students in groups. Have each group list 5 words they frequently use or hear used by their peers to describe their reactions, feelings or the actual situation.
2. Make a master list on the board. Have the class choose the five most common words.
3. Have students in small groups write their definitions and compare each individual's definition in the small group.
4. Discuss reasons for variations in their definitions.
5. Students work individually, choosing three alternative words for the chart (made with words from the class master list):

	1	2	3
1. nice			
2. beautiful			
3. cool			
4. fantastic			
5. bad			

6. Small groups make up situation in which one of the master list of words would be used or one of its alternatives.

Evaluation

Each individual writes an account of the situation or his/her reaction to the situation using one of the alternative words.

Objective: 1

Language Concepts: IIP, VC, F

Major Activity

Developing Language Concepts Through Listening

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how in a speaking-listening situation, repeating and questioning help clarify; whereas in a writing-reading situation the permanence of the symbol allows for thought and analyses.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how use of lower abstraction terms in questioning a speaker helps clarify the communication.

Resources

A student who is willing to share a personal incident in speaking and in writing

Conditions

Provisions for students to be outside classroom

Time

Two hours

Procedure

1. Student prepares short written incident one day in advance.
2. Send 3 students out of the room.
3. Student tells his personal incident to class.
4. Bring in student #1 — student relates incident to him.
5. #1 relates to #2, #2 to #3, #3 relates to student who experienced it.
6. Repeat process but allow students brought in to question and restate.
7. Student #3 relates incident to the student who experienced it.
8. Class discussion of alteration of details and why they altered them:
   a) effect of personal experiences on interpretation of details
   b) effect of questioning and restating before repeating
   c) identification of particular words that changed meaning and why.
9. Repeat above but have remaining 3 students read the written account and have them rewrite it for original student to read.
10. Pass out rewrites to class and compare with original written account.
11. Discuss alterations in written accounts—compare degrees of alterations in 3 exercises.

Evaluation

Give students in groups a list of information details of different sorts which a sender might wish to pass on to a receiver. Ask them to select which items they would choose to communicate orally and which they would write and why they would make that choice.

Objective: 1

Language Concepts: IIB, E, J, K, N, O

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Writing a Personality Sketch.

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the use of higher order abstractions to identify and describe (characterize) an individual without accompanying illustrations can be misleading.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate the positive power of mutual, descriptive, lower order abstractions and accompanying illustrations and/or examples by comparing sender-receiver impressions of the individual being characterized.

Resources

Construction paper, typewriter, copy of a real wanted poster, magic markers

Conditions

Informal, relaxed atmosphere

Time

One or two days (class periods)

Procedure

1. Examination of real posters by class and identification of method of description used on the posters.
2. Groups or individuals choose person secretly and invent silly crime.
3. Create wanted posters without a picture, including:
   a) physical characteristics
   b) habitual mannerisms
   c) personality traits
   d) places of frequentation
   e) predicted behavior in several given situations
4. Other students guess identity and analyze the "truth" of the poster.

Evaluation

Students create imaginary characters in a paragraph using the poster method of description.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Writing and Speaking—Descriptions of Sense Perceptions

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how metaphors and similes are used as a means of expressing and understanding the unknown.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how the use of metaphor and simile elicit a wide variety and intensity of response to the unknown.

Resources

A variety of small sea shells and paper bags

Conditions

Desks in a circle; one student who will write down oral responses

Time

One or more class periods

Procedure

1. Pass out small bags to each student who has his/her eyes closed.
2. Student may touch, smell, but not view the object in the bag (small shell).
3. Student does not identify but describes the object in one or two statements. Recorder records the responses.
4. Make lists of responses. Small groups choose the most meaningful or clear responses (which will be metaphors or similes) and discuss why they think they are the most meaningful, and why certain similes or metaphors were used by asking the student who made the statement why he/she used it.

Evaluation

Read selected poetry or prose in which there are a number of metaphors or similes; discuss individual responses and share reasons for those responses.

Objectives: 1, 3 and 4

Major Activity

Language Study

General Objectives

1. To reduce the use of absolute terms, generalities, abstractions of a high order, words that imply "allness."
2. To reduce the use of "either/or" arguments, passing from one alternative to its extreme opposite, describing things in terms of black and white without any gray shading in between.

Specific Objectives

1. To increase the use of terms of more-or-less, giving consideration to degrees and shades of meaning, avoiding talking about opposites.
2. To increase the practice of differentiating carefully between people, situations, and problems.
3. To reduce stereotyping based on faulty application of uncritically accepted generalizations.

Resources

One or more commonly-heard truisms, along with specific cases to which they may be applied syllogistically

Conditions

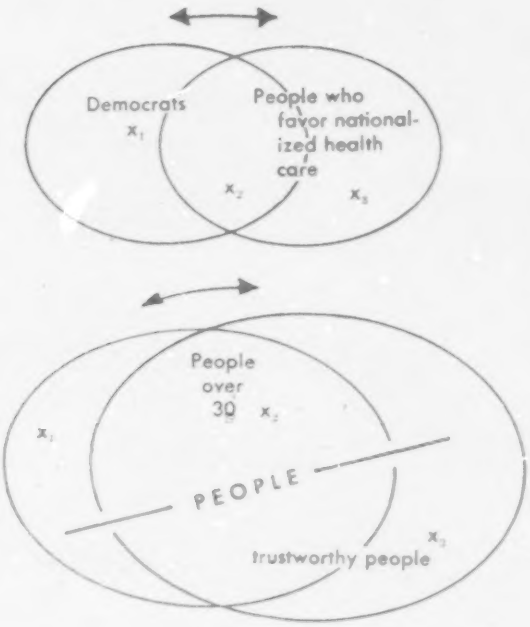
Prior work with deductive processes

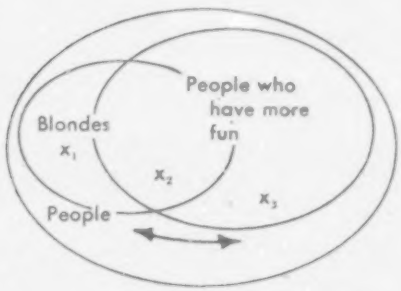
Time

One or two class periods

Procedure

1. Define and provide an example of a truism. Have students recall truisms they have heard or which they accept, e.g., Democrats favor nationalized health care . . . . Blondes have more fun. . . . Don't trust anyone over thirty.
2. Represent truisms graphically, using Venn diagram format. Demonstrate possible distribution of individual instances.





Evaluation

1. Develop terminology to combat "allness" (stated or implied).
2. Monitor the media for examples of uncritically accepted generalities, whether pious pronouncements or "Bunkerisms." Restate to represent specifics of the given situation.

Major Activity

Writing from visual images

General Objective

To increase the use of descriptive terms and lower order abstractions, statements as to who, what, where, when, and how much.

Specific Objectives

1. To increase the powers of observation.
2. To use writing as a means of organizing observations and conveying them to others.

Resources

Polaroid camera and color film

Conditions

Writing facilities

Time

Two class periods

Procedure

Student produces a visual image (a scene, a record of an activity or event, a portrait . . .).

Student reproduces the image through writing, using only the print before him as a source.

Student interacts with teacher or with other students in order to:

a. expand his/her perceptions of what is revealed visually
b. increase the precision with which he/she verbally codes what the visual image conveys
c. discover and evaluate alternate means of organizing and presenting his/her observations verbally

Evaluation

Repeat, using a projected image, visible while writing. Repeat, projecting an image for a few seconds, turning off the projector while students write, then checking powers of observation and verbal restatement through a re-examination of the visual image.

Major Activity

Listening

General Objectives

1. To realize that spoken symbols never convey the exact referent.
2. To realize that differing experiences and background determine variants in referent for the symbol.
3. To recognize that the more abstract the word chosen, the greater the possibility of misinterpretation.

Specific Objective

To recognize that a speaker's meaning for words will differ from the listener's meaning for the same words.

Resources

Slide projector, screen, selection of slides depicting controversial subjects, or individuals and groups commonly stereotyped, in positions which can be variously interpreted; tape recorder

Time

One class period

Procedure

Five students leave the room. Student A will return and study the projected slide for one minute, after which the projector is turned off. Student B is called in, and A reports to B what he has seen. C is then called in and B reports to him what he has heard . . . through student E. Each report will be taped as related. When the activity is completed the group will view the slide as each report is played back. Class will consider:

a. Which details are remembered? Why?
b. Does interest and attention influence the reporter?
c. Does individual experience influence the reporter?
d. Does degree of abstraction in language influence the reporter?
e. Do differing referents for words influence the reporter?
f. Was the account "built upon"? Why?
g. Was the account shortened in telling? Why?
h. What conclusions can be drawn regarding person-to-person communication?
i. What might be done to insure greater accuracy of transmission?

Evaluation

Test suggestions in response to (i) with new visual material and increased number of reporters.

Objectives: 1 and 5

Major Activity

Writing

General Objective

To increase the use of descriptive terms and lower-order abstractions, statements as to who, what, where, when, and how much.

Specific Objectives

1. To discover specific dimensions of an abstract term, "courage."
2. To increase the awareness that an individual's meanings for an abstract term vary according to past experiences, internal condition, and given situation.

Resources

Short stories, newspaper accounts, photos, and dramatizations reflecting actions students would label courageous

Conditions

Classroom setting conducive to open discussion, small group processes, and production, exchange, and critical treatment of student writing

Time

Three to five days

Procedure

1. Students determine, in discussion, through survey, or by consensus-arrival procedures, the categories of actions they would label courageous.
2. Students and teacher locate and share examples (short stories, newspaper accounts) of actions indicative of courage.
3. Discussion—whole group or small group—should focus on:
   a. Specific actions
   b. Specific contexts
   c. Individual differences in responding.

   Discussion leader(s) should consistently probe higher-level abstractions, seeking descriptive terminology and lower-level abstractions wherever possible.
4. Whole group or small groups observe photos and/or dramatizations.
5. Individuals write descriptive treatments of what they observe, consciously preferring specific, lower-level abstractions.
6. Share and compare descriptive treatments, pairing high-level abstractions and adding detail where needed. Rewrite as needed.

Evaluation

1. Examine a short story or newspaper account in order to determine its level of abstraction.
2. Write a fictional or nonfictional account of a courageous act; examine it to determine its level of abstraction.
3. Repeat process—in part or in whole—with another abstract term.

Objective: 1

Major Activity

Oral Communication

General Objectives

1. To reduce the use of absolute terms, generalities, abstractions of a high order, words that imply "allness."
2. To increase the use of descriptive terms and lower order abstractions, statements as to who, what, where, when, and how much.

Specific Objective

To enable students to distinguish between general and specific nouns, verbs, and modifiers, and to be specific in their speaking.

Resources

Blackboard or overhead projector

Conditions

Individual or small group work

Time

One or more class periods

Procedure

1. Define and demonstrate ladder of abstraction, supplying lower order nouns, verbs, and modifiers for their higher order counterparts. Examples: *animal*—dog, horse; *walk*—limp, stagger; *a nice dress*—a trim, green taffeta dress.
2. Provide students with several general nouns, verbs, and modifiers. Have them find five lower order counterparts for each.
3. Have students rewrite sentences to provide specific, picture-making close-ups—e.g., "The animal went toward the water, looking around for any signs of danger"; "the cat crept slowly toward the pool, peering right and left for any sign of the sadistic, cat-hating airedale."
   a. Putting down his tools, the worker picked up a piece of paper and looked at it for a long time.
   b. The visitor looked at the great number of things piled on the furniture in the room.
   c. Disturbed by the child's noise, the woman stopped working and went into the other room to see if anything had happened.
   d. The boy sat down by the edge of the water; he was eating his food when the sound of music came to him.

Evaluation

Select a topic; then limit it, using a similar procedure. Develop the topic into a short oral presentation, using specific, image-producing language.

Major Activity

Writing

General Objective

To increase the use of descriptive terms and lower order abstractions, statements as to who, what, where, when, and how much.

Specific Objective

To increase the ability to state observations and perceptions in a manner that will evoke similar observations and perceptions in the reader.

Resources

Previously prepared, numbered sheets of paper with various shapes, forms, and images represented on them. It is desirable to vary these in size and placement on the sheet as well.

Conditions

Sufficient room so that each student sees only his own paper

Time

Two or three class periods

Procedure

Introduction: discussion of the importance of concise and accurate description--particularly in technical writing; demonstration that people see things differently because of varying experience backgrounds.
Distribution of one drawing to each student. Each student is asked to write a description of what he sees on his paper. Collect drawings and written descriptions. Redistribute written descriptions randomly, along with a blank sheet of paper the identical size of the sheets on which the drawings appeared. Ask each student to reproduce the drawing(s), working from the written description only.
Compare the original drawing with the produced-from-written-description drawing. Examine differences in terms of the perceptions of the writer, the nature of the written description, and the perceptions of the reader. Determine what modifications in the written descriptions could bring the perceptions more nearly in line.

Evaluation

1. Try it again with new drawings.
2. Repeat, this time using a simple observed process (e.g., making a paper airplane, splicing a film, etc.).

Objectives: 1 and 2

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Reading Poetry

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the emotional response triggered by connotative words can influence behavior.

Specific Objective

The student will identify connotation used in poetry and the possible responses — will demonstrate the variety of possible responses.

Resources

Copy of poem "Silly" on chart or transparency and/or copy of poem for each child and the three faces shown below should be projected from a transparency

SILLY by Frances Lowery*

Sometimes I feel so silly,
I'm not so sure I'm me.
I laugh and then I giggle.
I'm ticklish as can be.
Did I eat a silly pickle?
Did I smell some funny air?
Was I tickled by a feather?
I don't seem to know or care.
I'm never silly very long,
An hour or two or ten.
And when the feeling goes away,
I feel like me again.

*Reproduced with permission of Frances Lowery and the Educational Resource Council of America, Cleveland, Ohio.

Conditions

Comfortable classroom environment

Time

Two or three 25 minute periods

Procedure

1. Choose 4 words to which the student will respond positively, negatively, or neutrally. You might choose feather, pickle, silly, me. As you discuss each word, record the children's responses.
2. Discuss the results in class — have the students note why some of the words are neutral and why others seem to have a much wider variety of responses.
3. Students share words with the class to which they personally respond emotionally.
4. Create sentences using the children's words in which the emotional response might be positive, negative, or neutral.
5. As the teacher, or another student, uses a word from the list, the children convey their emotional reaction by pointing to the appropriate face designating their personal connotation of the word.

Evaluation

Students read "Silly" and other short poems. In same way share the words they had strong reactions to. Compare words and reasons for their reactions.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Speaking — Descriptions of Sense Perceptions

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how similes and metaphors are used as a means of expressing and understanding the unknown.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how the use of similes and metaphors elicits a wide variety and intensity of response to the unknown.

Resources

A variety of small objects and paper bags

Conditions

Seats in a circle; a recorder

Time

Thirty minutes or more

Procedure

1. Pass out small bags to students.
2. Students may touch, taste, listen to, smell, but not view the object in the bag.
3. Student describes the object to the class. Limit the statements to two or three. Encourage use of similes: as hard as . . ., as sweet as . . ., as soft as . . ., as funny as . . ., as icky as . . ., etc. Allow children to hear you use metaphors: "Get your thinking caps on," "Are you stumped?" etc.
4. Make a list of responses on a chart or chalkboard. In discussion that follows, let class select the most meaningful or clear responses, and explain why the particular choice was made.

Evaluation

Have the children collect and illustrate similes and metaphors to make objects look silly.

Objective: 2

Major Activity

Developing Precise Reporting Skills

General Objective

To reduce the use of judgment terms, terms loaded with approval and disapproval.

Specific Objective

To increase objectivity; to demonstrate that perception is a matter of individual selection and interpretation of details from a situation.

Resources

Slide projector, slides as described in the lesson procedure

Conditions

Classroom

Time

One class period or longer

Procedure

Select four persons to help conduct an experiment. Send three out of the room temporarily. The member of the team left in the room, as well as the rest of the class, view a projected slide showing a scene of some degree of activity among people. Some scenes may suggest human cooperation, some conflict or confrontation. The scene may involve members of many ethnic backgrounds.

Give all in the room a minute to look at the picture; then call one of the three students remaining outside the room to come in. Have the team members face the class, making sure the projected slide is not visible to them, but is visible to the rest of the class. (The projector might be turned off while students are finding their places.) The student who has just seen the slide relates what he has seen to the other. A third member comes in (slide again is off, temporarily), and then the second relates what he has heard to the third. The third person later relates the situation to the fourth member of the team.

The class discusses together the progression in the distortion of the telling, which usually occurs, and tries to discover reasons that this happens. (Discuss background of one's experience, selection of what one includes in the story, and assumptions one makes which may have no firm basis in fact.) What words are judgmental words? Which words and phrases might be more objective?

Through teacher guidance or pupil self-discovery, the student may, in effect, say that what is "out there" is a matter of personal selection. With each retelling, the speaker's experience plays a part in how he interprets a message and reinterprets it for delivery. (Isn't it easy to see how rumors start?)

Evaluation

Use other slides and have the class analyze the messages conveyed. Each situation will reveal new insights into the communication process. Over time, the use of fewer judgment-laden terms or hastily-drawn conclusions may be apparent.

Objective: 2

Language Concepts: IIB, H

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Writing for Different Audiences

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how discovering the characteristics of his audience can help him choose word symbols that are likely to stimulate a positive reaction in that audience.

Specific Objective

The student will identify reasons for choosing symbols appropriate for specific audiences.

Resources

An interesting situation in the community, paper, pencils, and the name of the local Chief of Police

Conditions

Some previous work involving writing or speaking to identified audiences

Time

Three class periods

Procedure

1. The teacher introduces the exercise as a way of discovering what each one of them unconsciously already knows about people and how we try to communicate with them
2. After an interesting situation in the community or school has been factually discussed, the teacher divides the class into groups, each of which writes a letter as a supposed eye-witness to one of the three audiences: the Chief of Police, a teacher absent from school on a year's leave, or a good friend outside the school district and the community.
3. Groups list phrasing and vocabulary peculiar to each functional level (formal, informal) and the words that are likely to arouse special meaning or connotation for the specific audience.
4. Groups decide why they wrote differently to each audience, and how they learned to do this.

Evaluation

Students write and perform skits illustrating appropriate verbal choices for given situations.

Objective: 2

Language Concepts: IIB, IIIB

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Viewing and Observing

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the viewpoint of the symbol maker affects the emotional impact of referent.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how connotative terms lead to acceptance or rejection, whereas neutral terms facilitate further examination.

Resources

Glass of water partially filled

Conditions

Room arranged for small group work

Time

One hour

Procedure

1. Send six students out of the room.
2. Bring in one student at a time and ask him/her to describe a glass of water all can observe.
3. Divide students into two groups according to how they described the glass as half-filled or half-empty, and label each group as optimistic or pessimistic.
4. Divide remaining students into groups of four and ask these groups to work out definitions of "optimistic" and "pessimistic."
5. Give all groups a list of 3 situations with 3 possible responses for each. Have some groups choose how a pessimist would respond, others how an optimist would respond. Have individuals in groups of pessimistic and optimistic, and mark how they would respond individually.
6. Compare group predictions of how optimists or pessimists would respond to how individuals within a so-labeled group responded.
7. Discuss dangers of labels.

Evaluation

Find cartoons in newspapers in which definition predicts behavior.

Objective: 2

Language Concepts: IIB, C, H, VK, Q

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Writing News Stories

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how people's connotations for words (in news accounts) can affect their behavior.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how an author's awareness of possible connotations for given words can lead to an attempt to control their responses.

Resources

Copies of section from *Understanding Language 3* "Connotation in Persuasion," p. 16 (Xerox Corp., American Education Publication, 1969)
A resource person: a newspaper reporter

Conditions

Released time from school for several students; previous work on connotation and denotation; previous work on the makeup of a news story.

Time

Two or more class periods

Procedure

1. Review of connotation and denotation.
2. Discussion of paragraph identifying connotative words and probable connotations to specific audiences.
3. Definition of viewpoint and use of connotation to stimulate it.
4. Rewriting of the paragraph (description of the performance of a rock star), using positive or negative connotation directed toward a specific audience.
5. Two students accompany a newspaper reporter to cover a story. Student #1 writes an objective neutral story; student #2 slants his story for a specific audience.
6. In class, compare the printed professional news story to the two student stories.

Evaluation

Students team up and cover same events that occur in school and adopt differing viewpoints in writing their news stories of the events.

Objective: 2

Major Activity

Writing

General Objectives

1. To reduce the use of judgment terms, terms loaded with approval and disapproval.
2. To increase the use of neutral terms, terms that are as free as possible from bias or slant.

Specific Objective

To help students see and use writing as a means of organizing their observations and their thoughts about them.

Resources

Two or three accomplices (students from another class or perhaps from within the class) prepared in advance to stage an unusual sequence of events or disruptive activity

Conditions

Ordinary classroom situation with ongoing, unrelated activity

Time

One class period

Procedure

Class, proceeding as usual, is interrupted by staged happening. Action should be brief, nonviolent, and — insofar as possible — nonverbal. Actors disappear upon completion of their scene. The teacher, abandoning ongoing class activity, asks students to record their observations, telling "what happened." The teacher then asks students to cross out all judgmental terms — terms suggesting approval or disapproval, replacing them, when necessary, with neutral terms — terms free from bias or slant.

Evaluation

Students examine one another's papers, rating their objectivity.

Major Activity

Using Visual Language

General Objectives

1. To reduce the use of judgment terms/images — those loaded with approval and disapproval.
2. To increase the use of neutral terms/images — those as free as possible from bias or slant.

Specific Objective

To understand that one's responses are influenced by one's own physical disposition and environment.

Resources

Storyboards, cameras (still or movie), film, means or resources for processing

Conditions

Small groups, school-hours access to community

Time

One-and-a-half to two-and-a-half weeks (other activities may intrude)

Procedure

Students, individually or in small groups, will plan and prepare a photo essay with written text, or a slide presentation or film, with accompanying oral description or soundtrack as a commentary on small town America (or suburbia U.S.A., or the inner city, or my neighborhood . . .). Some may choose to work from visual to textual treatment, others from text to visual treatment. Either way, adequate planning should precede initial filming or writing.

Processed visuals should be carefully edited, visual/verbal matchup carefully made, and a smooth presentation (mounted prints plus captions and text, timed text — live or taped — plus slides or film) rehearsed and made.

Critical interaction should consider:

a. how closely each commentary (visual and verbal) squares with reality
b. how each commentary compares and contrasts with those of other individuals or groups
c. whether the commentary (visual and verbal) conveys a bias
d. how the background of the commentators influenced their commentary.

Evaluation

Each student will write a short paper evaluating his/her own (or his/her group's) production. The evaluation should examine the relationship between the student's background and commentary, and consider means of making it less judgmental, more nearly neutral in selection of terms and images.

Objective: 2

Major Activity

Viewing and Analyzing

General Objectives

1. To reduce the use of judgment terms, terms loaded with approval and disapproval.
2. To increase the use of neutral terms, terms that are as free as possible from bias or slant.

Specific Objectives

1. To differeniate between biased and objective news reporting.
2. To produce objective or "straight" statements about political or other potentially polarizing events.
3. To help students recognize the distortions of fact that may occur in a mass media campaign.

Resources

News accounts (clippings from several newspapers, tapes of radio coverage, videotapes of television coverage) of one day of campaigning by the candidates for national political office

Time

Two class periods

Procedure

Teacher (or a group of students) prepares a summary or log of the day's events.
The class is divided into three groups. One group is asked to prepare a news story favorable to a candidate. A second group is asked to prepare a news story unfavorable to that candidate. The third group is asked to prepare an objective account of the day's campaigning. *Students work from the summary or log only.* The news stories are presented and their differences noted. After comparing the student-prepared stories, the original news accounts and tapes may be used — first as an additional yardstick for evaluating the student accounts, then for analysis of *their* objectivity.

Evaluation

Assign students to monitor particular newspapers, network newscasts, or news magazines for a one or two week period to determine any evidence of bias or distortion of fact.

Objective: 3

Language Concepts: IIB, C, H

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Literature

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how deliberate misinterpretations of verbal symbols to fit one's own purposes causes conflict.

Specific Objectives

1. The student will demonstrate the need for examining the context of a situation before accepting absolute inclusive statements.
2. The student will describe in writing an incident in his own life that involves deliberate misinterpretation, and explores his own feelings and searches for possible relationships through the writing process.

Resources

Story, or story on tape, of "The Kitten" from *Black Boy* by Richard Wright

Conditions

Students arranged in groups, then reading alone, then divided into groups for discussion

Time

One-and-a-half hours

Procedure

1. Ask students in groups to identify ways their family life would be changed if the major wage earner worked nights. Discuss their reaction to such a change.
2. Read story or listen to tape.
3. Ask students to draw up in groups a list of five discussion quesitons on the story (one is sure to be "Why did he kill the kitten?"). Discuss how situations and feelings of people affect interpretation of language symbols.
4. Ask students in groups to make a list of situations in which authority figures have made figurative statements that were taken literally and resulted in severe actions in order to maintain authority.

Evaluation

Write description of a personal incident in which I misinterpreted another, or he/she misinterpreted me because of the emotional situation.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Listening. (Making use of who, what, where, and when indexes; and substituting "seems," "appears," for *is*, and adding "to me," makes statements more rational and less argument-provoking.)

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the experiences and values of each student determine his interpretation of verbal symbols.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate that a word is a symbol for something, but it is not the thing itself.

Resources

Chalkboard and/or chart paper, sentence strips

Conditions

Comfortable classroom atmosphere

Time

Two or three 20-25 minute periods

Procedure

1. Place the following chart on the blackboard:

	TRUE	FALSE	COMMENT
a. Snowballing is fun			
b. Exercise is good for you			
c. Homework is useless			
d. Pets are fun			
e. Poetry is boring			

Count the numbers of true and false responses for each statement. Allow argument to develop, then proceed:

a. Snowballing is fun.
What kind? — packed with ice? — dozens of snowballs? — light fluffy snow? — *Fun for whom?* — child who is injured? — child chased by gang? — child playing with friend?

b. Exercise is good for you.
What kind — scrubbing the basement? — running upstairs? — an outdoor game? — *Good when?* — after a big meal? — after being sick? — after school?

The word in each of the statements above that resulted in argument is the word *"is."*

What difference would using "seems" and "to me" make in the comments above?

Evaluation

Have group of two or three students choose a statement (developed by teacher) and demonstrate how their choice of statement may be made more rational and less argument-provoking.

Sample statements:

a. Toyotas are dangerous cars
b. He cheats
c. Roosevelt is a good school
d. Girls are good readers
e. The house is beautiful
f. Boys are rowdy
g. *Where the Wild Things* Are is a great book.

Objective: 4

Language Concepts: IIF, G

Major Activity

Viewing—Discovering that What One Sees is Determined by One's Vantage Point and by What One Expects to See

General Objective

The student will demonstrate the limitations of what one can see from any given vantage point at a given time.

Specific Objective

The student will share with other members of his group what he saw from about the same vantage point. Each group will share with other groups what the total group saw from different vantage points.

Resources

a. Three additional adults
b. Four pieces of oaktag (18" x 24")
c. Four felt-tip pens or markers

Conditions

a. Class divided into four working groups, each with an adult
b. Weather suitable for outdoor work, sitting on the ground, etc.

Time

45-60 minutes

Procedure

1. Title of this "field trip": I KNOW MY SCHOOL
   Assign each group to a different side of the school building. Each group will look at the building and record all the details they can see. (The adult with each group will be the recorder. Time: 30".)
2. All groups return to the classroom and display their lists of details where they can be easily seen for examination of similarities and differences.
3. Questions to ponder about OUR SCHOOL:
   a. Are all four lists the same? Why? Why not?
   b. Do all four lists have anything in common?
   c. Are there more characteristics the same or different?
   d. If we read all four lists to a stranger, would he know that they were about the same place? How? How not?
   e. Have we covered all parts of the school? If not, why not?
4. Extended Questions:
   a. Can one vantage point give anyone full knowledge about a place? A person? An experience? Etc.
   b. What about time? Would things appear the same in the summer? In the winter? At noon? At midnight? Etc. Why? Why not?
   c. How much time is needed to truly know all about a place? A person? Do we ever know all?
   d. What should we do when others see things differently? When their ideas differ from ours? Why?

Evaluation

Ask students to use this activity at home with their parents:
—about a tree near their house, a cat, or dog, or car, or the kitchen, etc.
Compare reactions of sight versus touch, smell, etc. Provide time the next day for reports on their experiences.

Objective: 4

Language Concepts: IA, B, C, VF

Major Activity

Listening, Thinking, Discussing, and Writing to Discover Positive Characteristics of People

General Objective

To demonstrate the ability to identify characteristics that make up a good or positive self-concept.

Specific Objective

To demonstrate, through writing, how to develop the positive personality traits we admire in others.

Resources

Book: Rolf Oheman's materials on Behavioral Modification; Story: "Black Pony"; Oaktag: 18" x 24"; Felt tip markers.

Conditions

Children in a relaxed state, ready to listen and to join in

Time

30 minutes

Procedure

1. Read and discuss the story "Black Pony." Helpful discussion questions are given as an aid to the teacher; however, children, in their discussion and analysis, will bring out the fine points that relate to them. (The theme of failure and success within a group, as experienced by Pony, is clear. The animal's actions are common and relevant to people.)
2. Questions for Discussion:
   a. Why did Black Pony pout?
   b. Do you understand why he said he "didn't care"?
   c. Is it obvious that he *did* care? Why?
   d. What was the reason for Gray Pony's wisdom?
   e. Why did Black Pony listen to Gray Pony? Would you? Why?
   f. Do you understand Black Pony's sadness? How?
   g. How did Black Pony feel about his success?
   h. Were all the other ponies "fair weather" friends? (This question may generate some interesting explanations and conversations.)
   i. Can you think of other ways Black Pony could have solved his problems?
3. With teacher as scribe for children's dictation, make a listing (possibly on large oaktag if you want to keep it) of desirable personality traits. Hang it where children can see it for review. At the top of the oaktag, we can use the following heading: WE LIKE PEOPLE WHO:

Evaluation

On the following day, each child may make his own list of positive strengths; characteristics he enjoys in himself; reasons why he thinks he/she is special. Hang these along with silhouette forms that help each other in making his/her list.

Objective: 4

Major Activity

Listening, Oral Communication

General Objectives

1. To recognize that differing experiences, backgrounds, and geographic locations determine variants in referents for the symbol.
2. To recognize that differing experiences, backgrounds, and geographic locations determine variants in symbols for the referent.

Specific Objectives

1. To recognize that words heard may arouse feelings in the listener that may differ from those of the speaker.
2. To become aware of dialect differences (regional and social) in the speech patterns of others and of one self.
3. To become aware of our affective responses to dialects of the language — our own and others'.

Resources

Malmstrom and Ashley, *Dialects, U.S.A.*, Shuy, *Discovering American Dialects**, NCTE recordings of regional dialect variations
Community informants by (1) areas, (2) ethnic backgrounds, (3) age levels, (4) occupations, (5) levels of education

Conditions

Tape equipment for recording dialectal variants

Time

Two to three weeks

Procedure

Study (texts, recordings, classroom guests) of regional dialect variations in pronunciation, word choice, and grammatical features. Development of a survey instrument (passage with key words to check pronunciations, choices of words or phrases to code set referents). Interviews with a cross section (representative sampling?) of community informants, including use of survey instruments to check pronunciations and word choices.
Tabulation of survey results.

Comparison with results for other dialect areas.
Study of social dialect variation by level of education, age, ethnic background, occupation, and any other determining factors that appear significant.
Self-assessment: To what extent do we feel most comfortable (relaxed, open, at ease) with regional and social dialects most nearly like our own? To what extent do we feel uncomfortable (uptight, suspicious, ill-at-ease) with regional and social dialects at variance with our own? What roles do dialect differences play in achieving effective communication?

Evaluation

Use an affective rating scale ("semantic differential?") to measure response to a passage in print, the same passage read by a dialectal "insider," and the passage read again by a dialectal "outsider." Groups responding should be well-matched to insure some measure of validity.

*1. NCTE, 1967; 2. NCTE, 1965

Major Activity

Oral Communication

General Objectives

1. To increase the practice of differentiating carefully between people, situations, and problems.
2. To increase the practice of keeping to the subject under discussion.
3. To increase the practice of evaluating the situation on its own merits.

Specific Objectives

1. To lead or participate effectively in small groups.
2. To direct group discussion toward rational and efficient problem solving.
3. To seek greater knowledge of problems and their possible solutions.
4. To draw responsible, rational conclusions.

Resources

Small group problem situation, such as "Endgame" or "Space Survival Task"

Conditions

Circular seating for small groups. Concentric seating (discussants within, monitors without) may be useful.

Time

One class period

Procedure

Group is faced with a crisis situation in which a consensus decision must be reached rapidly. The most typical ingredient of such a situation is survival of some vs. annihilation of all, or which *X* (number) pieces of equipment should be taken of the *4X* (number) at our disposal? A time limit is established.

At the end of the allotted time, the group must report its decision and the reason(s) for so deciding. (Some situations have built-in scoring aids: the group "survives" or "perishes" on the basis of its decision.)

Process is examined closely. What made for effective leadership? (Was there any?) What made for effective participation? What processes inhibited effective decision-making? What processes aided effective decision-making? What cognitive processes were in evidence? What affective processes?

Evaluation

If two or more groups participated, a good evaluation activity involves allotting another time period during which the decisions of all groups must be moved to consensus. Two or more representatives from each group may participate, while the remaining students monitor process.

Major Activity

Listening

General Objective

The student should develop a willingness to recognize listening as the most constructive and demanding of communicative activities.

Specific Objectives

1. To develop and practice active listening habits.
2. To realize that spoken symbols never convey the exact referent.
3. To recognize the extent to which paralanguage suggests speaker's intent and influences listener's response.

Resources

Record player; a variety of recorded music; tape recorder, tapes.

Condition

Normal classroom

Time

Several class periods

Procedure

1. Have students record on paper their responses to excerpts of a number of different types of music (e.g., marching band, acid rock, choral, folk, chamber, country western, classical symphony, Dixieland, etc.). How do students account for their differing responses? (Not "I like" or "I don't like," but what conditions responses: experience? familiarity . . .?).
2. Play a tape of fairly common sounds around the house or school, having students identify them on paper. What were they able to identify? Why? What were they unable to identify? Why?
3. Have one or more students prepare a tape of common utterances in the student vernacular — "cool," "dumb," "gross," etc. What meanings are stimulated by the words individually? What meanings are stimulated by each in a particular context? Would the manner of delivery make a difference?
4. Tape and play a portion of a speech or lecture. What meanings are stimulated by the excerpt alone? What effect would knowing the larger context have (the situation, the speaker, the subject, the audience)? Did the manner of delivery have any effect?
5. Summarize: What are the differences between hearing music, hearing household or school sounds, and hearing speech sounds? What are the similarities? Why do we "tune in" on some sounds, "turn off" others? What is active listening?

Evaluation

Establish an Active Listening Checklist for use in periodic self-evaluation of listening habits.

Major Activity

Oral Communication

General Objective

To reduce language practices that lead to misunderstanding and confusion; to increase language practices that lead to understanding and that reduce confusion.

Specific Objectives

1. To increase the practice of differentiating carefully between people, situations, and problems.
2. To increase the practice of evaluating the situation on its own merits.

Resources

A number of previously prepared problem situations

Conditions

Classroom set up for small group work

Time

One class period

Procedure

Teacher presents problem situations to small groups.

Example 1: You are in a cafe and are paying your bill. The cashier gives you change for a $10 bill although you gave her only $5. What would you do?

Example 2: You are secretary to a business executive. Your boss has just left for the airport enroute to a business conference in Detroit. You discover he has forgotten his brief case. What would you do?

Small group goal is to arrive at a consensus of opinion. When consensus (or impasse) is reached, the processes used should be analyzed and evaluated. Means of increasing cooperation and expediting the problem-solving process should be noted and applied in subsequent group interaction.

Evaluation

Repeat periodically with new situations — real and contrived. Work for additions to and refinement of group interaction and problem-solving techniques.

Major Activity

Viewing

General Objective

The student should be able to recognize visual appeals (color, shape, familiarity).

Specific Objective

Selecting an object which has most attracted his/her attention, the student will identify and evaluate the reasons for his/her choice.

Resources

Each student should be instructed the day before the lesson to bring one object to class which he/she thinks has the power to attract attention. The size of the object is limited only by the size of the container for each group.

Conditions

Division of class into groups, with each group having a container for its objects

Time

One class period

Procedure

Objects are placed in boxes according to group. Boxes are numbered. Students number their papers corresponding to box number. Boxes are passed around the class, allowing each student (independently) to look in the box and record the object in each that most attracted him. When all students have viewed and recorded their responses to all boxes, a summary of responses should be made.

The class should consider the following points:

a. Is there agreement in response? If so, why?
b. What influenced your choices? Color . . . shape . . . uniqueness . . . size . . . familiarity . . . other?
c. What previous knowledge affected your choices?
d. What conclusions can be made concerning product selection in our everyday lives?

Evaluation

Given the task as an advertiser to sell a new product, create an advertising campaign emphasizing attraction through viewing selection.

Survey the advertising campaigns in one issue of a particular publication, or in a given television time block. What are the basic appeals? How do they compare with your findings? Do appeals differ from audience to audience?

Major Activity

Writing

General Objectives

1. To decrease speaking of the present situation as "just like" another one, of this person as "just like" So-and-so, of this problem as "just like" the one solved previously.
2. To increase the practice of differentiating carefully between people, situations, and problems.

Specific Objectives

1. To gain skill in dealing with an issue or problem with imagination and creativity.
2. To describe an object, person, or event using words ordinarily reserved for a different kind of object, person, or event.

Resources

Carl Sandburg, *Honey and Salt*, poetry of Emily Dickinson, other appropriate examples

Conditions

Classroom adaptable for large or small groups

Time

Two class periods

Procedure

Introduction: discussion of problem of making writing sound interesting, come alive; idea of using unusual, unexpected, or initially jarring comparisons as a means of exploring a topic (pre-writing) and of communicating an impression to a reader.

Examination of this process in the writings of Sandburg and Dickinson. Teacher may need to point out examples at first, but activity should primarily be one of student discovery.

In not more than fifty words (prose or poetry) do one of the following:

a. describe a clock as a villain
b. describe a woman as a bird or an insect
c. describe the sun as an orchestra leader
d. describe the moon as a trapeze performer
e. describe a group of mountains as a family
f. describe the wind as an artist.

Evaluation

Compare results, determining the processes and individual contributions to meaning/understanding by different readers. Examine similar processes in the poetry of John Donne and Lawrence Ferlinghetti.

Major Activity

Writing and Listening

General Objectives

1. To improve word choice, word order, and punctuation in student writing.
2. To improve student skills in editing their own writing.

Specific Objective

To apply the "sound" of language to the "write" of language.

Resources

Tape recorder

Conditions

Quiet room, conference room, office, or sound-baffled carrel

Time

10-15 minutes per student each time used

Procedure

Students individually record their raw (untouched by teacher pen) writing, then play it back, marking any places that "don't sound right." Afterwards, they make changes to get these to "sound right." Changes are made so that original wording, punctuation, etc., are still observable.

Evaluation

The instructor can read the revised writing and comment on the effectiveness of the changes — preferably in individual conference. Or, students may review each other's tapes while marking a copy of the original, and then compare changes.

Major Activity

Group Problem-solving

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the emphasis of a statement is achieved through arrangement of sequence in related ideas.

Specific Objectives

1. The student will differentiate between facts and the arrangement of facts to suggest an opinion or interpretation.
2. The student will demonstrate how more rational decisions are made by a number of people in a problem-solving task as opposed to one person working alone.

Resources

Large sequence pictures and/or individual copies for each student

Conditions

Large or small group work

Procedure

1. Teacher randomly displays the sequence pictures.
2. Students individually try to arrange the parts logically.
3. Divide students into groups — groups arrange sequence logically and share their version of the story.
4. Compare each group's arrangement and the criteria used for the arrangement.
5. Compare effects on interpretation by sequential arrangement.

Evaluation

Make available to the students sets of sequence pictures; have them work out a sequence that suggests a definite interpretation. This could be followed with an activity in which the children develop original sets of sequence pictures.

Objectives: 5, 7, 10, 11

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Literature

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the experience and values of each reader determine his interpretation of verbal symbols in folk tales.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate the necessity of making reality decisions and that fantasy makes dealing with reality possible.

Resources

Story, or story on tape, of *The Three Little Pigs*

Conditions

A comfortable listening atmosphere

Procedure

1. Tell the children that you will read a story to them that they have probably heard before. Suggest that they listen for details that they haven't noticed before and things that depart from the version of the story they know.
2. In discussing the story with the children, ask questions designed to make children aware of the "wise beast - foolish beast" motif, suggesting that with cunning and prudence a little pig can deal with the dangers that beset him.
3. Expand the discussion — ask questions designed to make children aware of other important points hidden in the story:
   a. Since the third pig is the oldest and biggest, his victory reveals the advantage of growing up — in wisdom
   b. The story shows us the transformation from impulse-dominated behavior to actions based on foresight and rational control
   c. The story permits the child to draw his own conclusions — helping him along the way to true maturation
   d. *The Three Little Pigs* helps us defeat our asocial tendencies — those unconscious and inner powers — by teaching self-control
   e. Fairytales forgo direct appeals to the conscience and address themselves to man's unconscious needs, desires, hopes and fears.

Evaluation

Use other stories such as *Cinderella* and *Little Red Riding Hood* to discover if the student comprehends the fantasies they offer, the solutions they suggest, the deeper meaning of life they allude to while promising that it can be attained in the future.

Objective: 5

Language Concepts: VD, F

Major Activity

Viewing and Writing to Discover the Appropriate Language Symbols Related to the Five Senses

General Objective

Through viewing a film, the student will identify the senses used by animals and how their behavior was affected.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how the animal behavior in the film relates to their own behavior.

Resources

a. "Pigs," an 11 minute color film (Churchill Films)
b. 8 mm projector and screen; paper and pencils

Conditions

Comfortable viewing vantage, discussion groupings, and writing spots

Time

About 35-40 minutes — film, 11 minutes; discussion, 10 minutes; writing, 15 minutes.

Procedure

1. Introduce the film "Pigs." Film may seem humorous, but keep on the lookout for ideas of what the animals are doing and why.
2. Show the film.
3. Ask for reactions.
   a. What was the funniest thing you saw?
   b. What did the pigs remind you of? As groups? As people?
   c. What senses did you use in viewing the film?
   d. Which of your senses were excited?
   e. Which of the pigs' senses were excited?
   f. Do we feel pleasure or pain with our senses?
   g. Do we live in groups too?
   h. Would you like to see the film again? Why? Why not?
4. Pass out paper and pencils. Have students write five headings:
   Taste—Touch—Smell—Hear—See
   a. Have students list words or phrases (under the proper heading) that describe their own or the pigs' senses that were used or were excited.

Evaluation

Discuss with the students how we may learn about ourselves by watching animals. Ask them to try animal watching for the next three days. Set a date for them to report, either orally or in writing, or both. (Be ready for questions.)

Objective: 5

Language Concepts: IIIB, F, G, IVA, VD

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Writing Observations

General Objectives

1. The student will demonstrate how recording in writing his/her reactions to a visual perception enables one to search for relationships.
2. The student will demonstrate how discussing these relationships enlarges and enhances his/her interpretation because of the interaction.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how interpretations can be easily confused with facts, and often how what is going on is not what he/she sees or feels is going on.

Resources

A large poster or picture showing people, color, and movement

Conditions

Normal classroom

Time

Two hours

Procedure

1. Place poster in place where it is easily visible.
2. Introduction of poster, mentioning use of color, etc. Students engage in an activity without pointing out specifics.
3. Students individually write descriptions of poster to an audience that has never seen it.
4. In small groups, students read descriptions and the group records *all* of the *relationships* observed.
5. Students, in small groups, question individuals who alone perceived a relationship about why they did so (relationship of observation to past experiences).
6. Group writes a short description for outside audiences.
7. Group compares a group description with individual descriptions and values (viewpoint of each).

Evaluation

Have each student write an evaluation of how he/she may profit from this experience in two or three different situations in the future. Have students compare their projections.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Recording Speech (Slang)

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how knowledge of a listener's background helps the speaker choose language symbols with which the listener will be comfortable.

Specific Objective

The student will distinguish between different verbal approaches to a listener and will describe the basic communication process in each approach.

Resources

Paper, pencil, tape recorder

Conditions

Place for group work

Time

Two hours

Procedure

1. Define language levels through use of examples on tape.
2. Students in groups list words (in different levels) and create conditions in a situation that would call for their use.
3. Groups will compare lists and situations — discuss the why's of word choice and situations.

Evaluation

Groups create four real life situations, writing and performing skits, with each skit including words basically of one of the four levels.

Objective: 5

Language Concepts: IIQ, IIIC, IVA, F

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Creating a Viewing Experience (T.V. Commercial)

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the unique attributes of the T.V. media demand group planning and organizing of an audio-visual experience.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate his knowledge of propaganda techniques in the visual media by creating as part of a group a satirical or a straight T.V. advertisement for a real or imaginary product.

Resources

Video tape equipment, script boards, place for small group planning, place for reviewing commercials

Conditions

Ordinary classroom, part of which can be cleared for a filming area or a studio in which to film

Time

Six days for planning, filming, editing and reviewing; three days for introductory work.

Procedure

1. Have students bring advertisements to class from magazines or have class view selected T.V. commercials.
2. Work in small groups to analyze advertisements:
   a) purpose of product
   b) promise of product (appeal)
   c) specific audience
   d) visual makeup
   e) connotative words.
3. Have groups list appeals and audience on a ditto for each group.
4. Group the appeals and classify them:
   a. testimonial
   b. bandwagon
   c. name calling
   d. card stacking
   e. plain folks
   f. bandwagon
   g. glittering generalities
   h. stereotyping.
5. Students divide into groups of 4-5. They plan their own T.V. commercial (1 min.) either seriously selling a product or satirizing an approach. The commercials either sell a product consciously using propaganda devices, satirizing them, or selling a product without using them.
6. Plan filming by using attached script board.
7. Film the commercial.
8. Class views — identifies propaganda techniques and evaluates visual effectiveness.

Evaluation

Script Board

Product

Approach

Audience

Propaganda devices to be used/or avoided

Audio or dialogue from script

Visual Image Idea to be communicated by the image Time Camera Shot

Major Activity

Group Problem Solving

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the emphasis of a statement is achieved through arrangement of sequence in related ideas.

Specific Objectives

1. The student will differentiate between facts and the arrangement of facts to suggest an opinion or interpretation.
2. The student will demonstrate how more rational decisions are made by a number of people in a problem-solving task as opposed to one person working alone.

Resources

Copies of a magazine article with a picture

Conditions

Group and individual work

Time

Dependent on the length and difficulty of the article, 1½-2 hours

Procedure

1. Teacher cuts up article into parts.
2. Students individually try to arrange the parts logically.
3. Divide students into groups — groups arrange sequence logically.
4. Compare each group's arrangement and the criteria used for arrangement.
5. Compare effects on interpretation by arrangement.

Evaluation

Give students list of events or facts, etc; have them work out a sequence that suggests a definite interpretation.

Objective: 5

Language Concepts: IIB, F, H, M, N, O, IIIG, VD, E

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through the Newspaper

General Objectives

1. The student will demonstrate how different audiences require different examples and illustrations in reporting the same incident.
2. The student will identify how the experiences and background of each reporter affects the sets of relationships perceived by each reporter for the same incident.

Specific Objectives

1. The student will identify similar items in different accounts of one incident and will determine whether they are treated as fact or opinion.
2. The student will demonstrate how comparing different accounts of the same incident yields more data and more possible alternatives or causes.
3. The student will demonstrate how greater variety in the makeup of the audience increases the importance of careful selection of illustrations and examples.

Resources

Newspapers from various locations; wire, clothes pins.

Conditions

Room for group work, some previous experiences with different types of writing in six newspapers, some knowledge of editorials and news stories

Time

Three to four days to two weeks

Procedure

1. Students bring newspapers from different locations. In small groups, students briefly contrast these with a hometown newspaper. Groups report differences they noted to the class.
2. Select from *World Almanac* a list of newspapers from different parts of the U.S. Students in groups each select a newspaper and write a letter requesting copy of each for a predetermined date.
3. As papers arrive, clip to wire strung in class and arrange by geographical, political, or population size basis.
4. Students in groups note differences and similarities in accounts of same events:
   a) arrangement of facts
   b) background information
   c) inferences that can be drawn
   d) news emphasis
   e) connotative and denotative language.

Evaluation

Write a real or imaginative news story of a happening in the home town for the local paper, A. P. release or international release.

Major Activity

Language Study

General Objectives

1. To reduce the use of absolute terms, generalities, abstractions of a high order, words that imply "allness."
2. To reduce the practice of confusing facts that can be verified by anybody, and interpretations, opinions, and judgments that are exclusively our own.

Specific Objectives

1. To distinguish between facts and inferences.
2. To determine if labels for persons or groups are factual or inferred.

Resources

1. Fabun: *Communications: The Transfer of Meaning.**
2. Pictures of people in various activities.
3. Recording: Ruth Bebermeyer, "The Label Game."

Conditions

Prior use, discussion, and understanding of the terms: "fact," "inference," "label," "stereotype."

Time

One class period

Procedure

1. Review terms (Ref. Fabun).*
2. Discuss a common stereotype's origin in terms of incomplete and unrepresentative fact, overgeneralization, and the tendency to label.
3. Working in pairs, with each pair receiving one picture of a person or group of persons, students will:
   a. Make factual statements based on their observations, citing the evidence that will support their statements
   b. Make inferential statements based on their observations citing their basis and determining the degree of probability
   c. Cite possible labels (e.g., students, tourists, immigrants) that might be attached to the people in the picture, determining whether the labels are factual or inferred
   d. Determine whether stereotypes exist for the people so labeled and, if so, what the stereotypes are based on.

Evaluation

Presentation and discussion of each pair's findings.

*Fabun, Don, *Communications: The Transfer of Meaning* (Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1968).

Objective: 5

Major Activity

Writing

General Objective

To increase the practice of distinguishing between what is going on and what we feel or understand is going on.

Specific Objectives

1. To increase students' powers of observation.
2. To encourage students to represent statements of interpretation, opinion, or judgment as such, rather than as statements of fact.

Resources

Pictures of people with varying facial expressions and postures suggestive of anger, dejection, shame, joy, sorrow, frustration, loneliness, etc.

Conditions

Usual classroom

Time

One or two days

Procedure

1. Have students write about a particular picture (or small groups write about different pictures) — (a) identifying the emotion they believe is shown, (b) indicating the specific features that lead them to their identification, and (c) suggesting a probable situation or event that has evoked the response.
2. Note differences in student observations and conclusions.
3. Determine what is statable as fact and what is not.
4. Rewrite as necessary, making certain that interpretations, opinions, and judgments are not stated as fact.
5. Repeat with additional pictures.
6. Use same process with a dramatized situation.

Evaluation

Have students (several days later, if possible) observe and write about an individual's reaction to a situation -- real or contrived. Check for differentiation between statements of fact and statements of interpretation, opinion, or judgment.

Major Activity

Reading

General Objectives

1. To reduce the practice of confusing facts that can be verified by anybody, and interpretations, opinions, and judgments that are exclusively our own.
2. To increase the practice of differentiating carefully between people, situations, and problems.

Specific Objective

To bring about the recognition that meanings are in people, not in words — that meaning emerges from the interaction of the reader (his recall of personal experiences) and the work.

Resources

Cardboard, freezer paper, newsprint, crayons, felt markers, colored chalk, cloth material, stapler, staples, other art media

Conditions

A series of work stations made up of bare floor in various areas of the classroom

Time

Three class periods

Procedure

Following the reading of a given novel, students — individually or in small groups — select characters for interpretation and visual depiction. The student's primary goal is to represent the character through use of the art materials.

The teacher's goal, in overseeing the activity, is to focus the student's attention on textual matter relating to the character, and on the attitudes, values, and experience backgrounds which lead him/her to interpret the character as he/she does.

In subsequent sharing and comparing of results, make careful distinction between factual (referential) visual statements — those that can be textually verified and agreed upon — and inferential or judgmental visual statements — those dependent on the background and mind set of the individual reader.

Establish criteria for assessing the validity of individual interpretations, dependent both on a careful reading of the text and on a recognition of the attitudes, values, and belief systems that make up the individual at the time of reading.

Evaluation

Repeat procedure with other characters or with situations from the same or other works, using verbal (written and oral) depiction as well as visual.

Objective: 5

Major Activity

Viewing

General Objective

To identify visual persuasion techniques, including logical processes and affective appeals.

Specific Objectives

1. To identify the audience for whom specific visual material is intended.
2. To evaluate the purposes of and the techniques used in television commercials.

Resources

Videorecorder and monitor
William Kuhns: *Exploring Television**

Conditions

Provisions for small group work

Time

Two to three days

Procedure

Preliminary discussion of the importance of television as an advertising medium and the nature of audience appeal. Identification, with examples, of the following elements:

a. dominant theme, slogan, or jingle
b. dominant imagery
c. unique selling proposition
d. key selling point
e. techniques
   (1) testimonial
   (2) demonstration
   (3) emotional impact
   (4) animated cartoons
f. pace
   (1) audio
   (2) video
g. scale
h. voice
i. tone.

Use of previously taped commercials for class or small group analysis in accordance with elements (above).

Evaluation

Reports (oral or written) analyzing additional current commercials. Planning, video-taping, and viewing of student created commercials.

*Chicago, Loyola University Press, 1971.

Major Activity

Listening, Writing, Oral Communication

General Objectives

1. To reduce the practice of confusing facts that can be verified by anybody, and interpretations, opinions, and judgments that are exclusively our own.
2. To increase the practice of distinguishing between what is going on and what we feel or understand is going on.

Specific Objective

To recognize the role of perception and selection in limiting a reporter's objectivity.

Resources

Community events (government, special interest groups, activity which has strongly divided community or stimulated student reaction)

Conditions

Relatively small groups of students visiting each of several areas

Time

One week

Procedure

Students observe events, meetings, or activities characterized by polarization of view, strong competition, or spirited exchange. Students write three accounts of the observed activity:

a. a straight news story, striving for objectivity
b. an interpretative news story, explaining the background and significance of the event
c. a signed column or editorial giving a personal reaction to the observed activity.

Students work in small groups to compare their accounts —

a. evaluating the objectivity in the first account
b. considering reasons for the differences in emphasis in the other two accounts.

Students meet in large group to compare small-group findings, identifying:

a. differences in perceptions
b. differences in selection
c. differences in experience (reporters' differing experience, backgrounds, attitudes, values, biases, prejudices).

Evaluation

Students apply their categories, their scale of objectivity, and their reasons for reportorial differences, to reports in print and electronic media.

Objectives: 5, 6 and 7

Major Activity

Writing

General Objective

To grow in awareness that recording one's observations can serve as reminders — memory stimulators.

Specific Objectives

1. To develop recognition of the richness of one's own personal experience as a source of materials for writing.
2. To understand that nostalgia is one of the major moods in which a writer works.
3. To realize that communication is enhanced by the use of specific images and concrete language.

Resources

Prior study of such works as Salinger's *The Catcher in the Rye*, Agee's *A Death in the Family*, Dylan Thomas's "A Child's Christmas in Wales," Laurie Lee's "A Winter Treat," Thomas Sancton's "The Silver Horn," John Denver's 'West Virginia," Don McLean's "American Pie"

Conditions

An open atmosphere in which self-revelation will not provoke laughter, embarrass, or threaten status

Time

Several class periods

Procedure

Introduction: discussion of nostalgic appeal in literature, in contemporary film, on television, in popular music, in fashion. (Toffler's *Future Shock* may provide insights for those who seek reasons.)

Application to personal lives of the students: e.g., a game of "Remember When" — What was Christmas like when you were a child? What did you used to do on Hallowe'en? Who was your best friend in third grade? Who were your favorite TV heroes?

Have each student bring to class a "memory trigger" — perhaps a class picture from grade school, a childhood toy or treasure, a souvenir or memento from a vacation trip, a grade school project or assignment your mother has saved . . .

Have each student write something based on this "memory trigger": a narrative account, a poem, an essay. Specific attention should be given to the use of specific language and imagery to recreate in the reader the mood or feeling the "memory trigger" has evoked in the writer.

Evaluation

Student sharing of material so produced, with critical examination of elements most nearly successful in communicating the intended mood or feeling.

Major Activity

Writing, Oral Communication

General Objectives

1. To reduce the practice of confusing facts that can be verified by anybody, and interpretations, opinions, and judgments that are exclusively our own.
2. To increase the practice of distinguishing between what is going on and what we feel or understand is going on.

Specific Objectives

1. To develop a respect for the views expressed by others, even though they differ from one's own.
2. To develop the habit of cooperation rather than confrontation as a means of dealing productively with controversial issues.

Resources

Normal classroom equipment and materials

Conditions

Freedom to deal with controversial content or express divergent views; recognition that grade (if any) is based on processes used rather than content chosen or view taken.

Time

One week or more

Procedure

Class identifies topics or issues on which they have honestly differing views — e.g., abortion, amnesty, compensatory quotas in the hiring of minorities, trial marriage . . .
Students write position papers, stating their views on issues on which they have strong feelings or convictions. (Each student chooses only one issue.)
Teacher pairs students with opposing viewpoints. Pairs have a limited time in which to:

a. determine factual content (verifiable by anybody, agreed to by both)
b. determine areas of agreement on inferential and judgmental content
c. determine areas of disagreement on inferential and judgmental content
d. discover bases for disagreement on inferential and judgmental content
e. assess the relative importance of reaching agreement (personally, nationally, etc.), potential means of reaching agreement, means of co-existing (amicably agreeing to disagree)
f. suggest means of initiating dialogue and cooperative effort among groups holding opposing views.

Evaluation

Each team will report its findings (a-f above) in a co-authored short paper.

Major Activity

Listening and Recording to Demonstrate Sequence

General Objective

The student will demonstrate accuracy in sequence of details.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate memory of details in a short, short story by creating a cartoon drawing, portraying the details of the story read to him.

Resources

1. A prepared tape (preferable), or teacher as narrator
2. Tape recorder, or prepared script
3. Manilla drawing paper (9" x 12")
4. Crayons

Conditions

1. Relative quiet
2. Groups of six — or entire class

Time

20-30 minutes

Procedure

1. "Our fun game to day will be in two parts: I shall send you messages about silly clowns; then you will make pictures with your crayons, on the paper in front of you, about the silly clowns.
2. "First, please fold your paper in half; then in half again. Now unfold your paper. You have four squares (or boxes). Now number your boxes in the left hand corner: 1, 2, 3 and 4. Now turn your paper over and number the top two boxes, 5 and 6.
3. "The first two stories, I shall read twice. After each, I shall give you time to make a fun cartoon. Try to remember all of the things about each clown and put them in your drawing. Don't worry about being an elegant artist — stick men will be fine."
4. Read 1 and 2 twice; 3, 4, 5, and 6, only once. After each story, give the students three minutes to make their cartoons — more or less time, depending on the group.
   a. "In Box #1, make a short, fat clown with big shoes and a silly hat with a red feather in it.
   b. "In Box #2, try to imagine and draw a happy lady clown, with yellow, curly hair. She is wearing a long, blue dress and is pushing a baby buggy.
   c. "In Box #3: Close your eyes. Think about a tall, sad man clown riding on a horse so short that the clown's feet are touching the ground. Now, open your eyes and make him.
   d. "In Box #4: Please make a sad, sad clown who is being pulled around by a chained dog that has brown spots.
   e. "In Box #5: Now think of a silly, monkey clown, with an orange hat, a yellow balloon, and a red necktie, trying to climb a tree. Please make him.
   f. "In Box #6: Try to imagine three, dancing, lady clowns standing one-footed on a horse's back; the ladies have short, pink skirts and pretty, brown hair."

Evaluation

Check papers for accuracy of placing drawing in the appropriate boxes, which are numbered accurately.
Also check for the number of details remembered and recorded. Have children write their own word pictures to be used for a follow-up activity, so they are the message senders as well as being the cartoon makers.

Major Activity

Learning to Stay on the Subject

General Objectives

1. To decrease the tendency to ramble from one subject to another.
2. To increase the practice of keeping to the subject under discussion.

Specific Objectives

1. To expedite group discussion, making it more productive.
2. To encourage active, balanced participation in discussion within a group.

Resources

Tape recorder (one for each group)

Conditions

Room for small group work

Time

One or more class periods

Procedure

1. Group determines its goal, stating it specifically, establishing an arbitrary time limit in which it is to be accomplished, and budgeting available time to the steps necessary to meeting the goal.
2. One member is named *recorder;* another *enabler.* (These roles will pass to all members in subsequent group activities.) The recorder's function is to keep accurate notes on group proceedings. The enabler keeps communication channels open, cuts off non-goal-oriented directions, and holds discussants to pre-established time allotments. His word is nondebatable.
3. Tape record the discussions of each group.

Evaluation

At the end of the arbitrary time limit, and before any report-back to a larger group takes place, the reporter summarizes the discussion for the small group. At this point a simple evaluation is completed by each member, utilizing a five-point scale:

(a) attainment of goal, (b) adequacy of recorder's summary, (c) effectiveness of enabler's function, and (d) participation of each remaining member.

Use tape recorder to play back the discussion for further analysis and evaluation.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Speaking

General Objective

The student will demonstrate why it is important to learn how language affects human behavior.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate that if we learn more about language habits, we may understand more about our thinking and our actions.

Resources

Chalkboard and/or chart paper and/or transparency

Conditions

Comfortable classroom environment

Time

Two class periods, each 20-25 minutes

Procedure

1. Ask students to decide among themselves on a very simple command such as to draw a triangle on the board. Agree very pleasantly and ask whether they are sure as to what you are to do. Then proceed to devise as many mistakes as you can. Draw the triangle in pencil. When pupils protest and demand chalk, draw one too small to be seen, or draw zig-zag lines, or draw one on the wall. Continue the game until it is clear that the pupils begin to show an awareness of how difficult it is to give a simple command.
2. This game exaggerates a very common occurrence in language habits that causes many misunderstandings. Ask the students if they know what it is. (We have many meanings for one word.)
3. Have students try thinking one thought without using words.
4. Have a student "who can stand it" go to the chalkboard to scrape his nail. Stop him from carrying out the act just as students react. Point out that they were reacting to words before the act was performed (language-affected behavior).
5. Are students aware of any group of people who usually are accurate in their use of language? Scientists use their language accurately in their work since they use more restricted symbols and words in their work.

Evaluation

Students may draw a picture of exactly what they visualize as the teacher says the following words: *man, woman, hot, cold, fast, slow, water*. Go over the results getting as many different answers as possible. This demonstrates that we could learn to use language more efficiently and accurately to achieve understanding and agreement.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Recording in Writing the Student's Words Used Orally

General Objective

The student will demonstrate that *words are symbols.*

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate that meanings are not in words; they are in people.

Resources

Chalkboard and/or chart paper

Conditions

Comfortable classroom environment

Time

As many 20-25 minute periods as are needed

Procedure

1. Give the students a simple command such as, "Put a key on your desk." After the students indicate that they have no key, have them conclude that you may mean answers to a test, key signature of a song, or a part of a piano, etc., until they realize that key is used in many ways.
2. List all the uses the students can think of for the words "run," "table," "break."
3. Fill in this table using a few words that appear on report cards.

	Teacher	Student	Parent
Dependability			
Co-operation			
Self-Control			

4. Expand the above list.
5. How could the following be interpreted?
   a. "Do the problems on page 20 too."
   b. "I need some new glasses."
   c. "Look out!"

Evaluation

Students dictate words or phrases that could be defined in different ways. Interview parents, friends, peers for definitions and reasons for definitions. Share results with class.

Major Activity

Listening, Reading, Speaking and Writing Answers and Questions

General Objective

To demonstrate the ability to formulate questions from answers.

Specific Objectives

To demonstrate the ability to read answers, to prove their own experiences for unique, interesting questions, to verbalize an answer that will catch the attention of listening peers, to speak with ease and competence, and to write from memory.

Resources

Piano or record player with music to the song "Answer Me a Question"; overhead projector and screen, clean plastic transparencies and pen — or chalkboard and chalk; paper and pencils.

Conditions

Pleasant atmosphere (fun expected); a fully participating audience; children seated in most comfortable positions (able to see the board or screen).

Time

20-30 minutes

Procedure

1. Sing "Answer Me a Question" in a sing-along fashion with the record. Permit whatever discussion occurs naturally after the song.
2. Explain that the children will play the game in the song. All they need to do is to think about themselves, their own experiences, and come up with some ideas that will be questions in response to answers to be projected on the screen (or written on the chalkboard). The answers may be humorous, serious, pleasant, or even sad — whatever fits.
3. Project the answer word, or words, and/or phrases one at a time, with intervals for the children to think and volunteer answers in full question form. As a volunteer gives his question, have a peer give or read the profound answer. Suggest good expression, yet natural conversation, while the process is going on.
   The following are possible answers; encourage creative questions:

Answers	*Questions*
1. Three	How many children in your family? How many feet long was the fish that got away? etc.
2. Chocolate ice cream	What's good on your inside and funny on the outside?
3. White, fluffy clouds	
4. Yes, a picnic table	
5. A circle. Etc.	

4. Ask each child to write his/her favorite question and answer of the class period.

Evaluation

Discuss the fact that there were *no* right or wrong questions to the answers. Good communication depends on sender and receiver being in agreement, and understanding of the issues discussed, read, or heard.
The following day, have the children presented (via chalkboard or mimeo paper) with two answers. Have them write questions for each.

Major Activity

Objective: 8

Clarifying Intended Meanings

General Objective

To reduce quibbling on the dictionary meaning of words; to increase the use of words as mere tokens for what we wish to convey.

Specific Objective

To demonstrate that we often react to questions on the basis of assumptions about the person's meaning, rather than actually the words themselves.

Resources

None

Conditions

Classroom

Time

Two class periods

Procedure

Write these questions on the board:
Do you have the time?
Do you know how to get to the library?
Do you know the price of this item? (In a store.)
Could you help me? (In a store.)
Have the students ask these questions to persons they know outside the school. Have them write exactly the response they receive each time they ask. The next class period, tally the number of times the response received was a direct response to the literal question; that is, "yes" or "no." Tally the number of times the response was rather an answer to the *implied* question. (For example, "Do you know what time it is?" will generally elicit the response, "I think about three o'clock," rather than "yes.")
Discuss how often we react to what our experience leads us to think the person's meaning is, rather than the words taken literally.
Ask class how many times communication has been confused in a situation like this:

"Do you know where Jane is?"
"No, where?"
"If I knew, why would I be asking?"

Evaluation

Ask the class to write the reason such a message was confused. Was the second person reacting to a literal or implied meaning?

Major Activity

Clarifying Intended Meanings

General Objective

To reduce quibbling on the dictionary meaning of words; to increase the use of words as mere tokens for what we wish to convey.

Specific Objective

To demonstrate that meaning depends upon more than simply dictionary definitions of words.

Resources

None

Conditions

Classroom

Time

One class period

Procedure

Write the following sentence on the board:
I bought two posters for you.
With the class explore how the sentence changes by stressing each word in turn:
I bought two posters for you. (Not your other friend.)
I *bought* two posters for you. (I didn't steal them.)
I bought *two* posters for you. (Not just one.)
I bought two *posters* for you. (Not just ordinary pictures)
I bought two posters *for* you. (So you wouldn't have to bother.)
I bought two posters for *you*. (Not for my other friends.)
Discuss: How important is word stress in your own daily conversation?

Evaluation

Have each student think of his own sentence. Repeat it aloud, each time stressing different words. Have the other students in the room try to explain what each change means to them.

Major Activity

Objective: 8

Discovering Language Concepts Through Reading Poetry

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the emotional response triggered by connotative words can influence behavior.

Specific Objective

The student will identify connotation used in poetry and the possible responses -- will demonstrate the variety of possible responses.

Resources

Dictionaries, newspapers, scissors, glue, colored paper and magazines

Conditions

Room for individual group work within the classroom

Time

Two class periods

Procedure

1. Students in groups make up lists of 5 words they think people will respond to positively, negatively, or neutrally. Each student in the group surveys 5 people outside of class and records their responses (positive, negative, neutral) to the 5 words.
2. Discuss results in class — define connotation and denotation by asking why some words were definitely neutral and why others seemed to have a much wider variety of responses.
3. Students clip from printed materials words they personally respond to emotionally.
4. Students exchange piles of clippings and then try to create meaningful and powerful phrases or sentences or images.
5. Each student displays his/her creation and reads it.

Evaluation

Students read short poems, and list words they had strong reactions to; they compare words and reasons for their reactions in small groups.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Writing Slang Definitions

General Objective

The student by identifying and compiling definitions of current slang will demonstrate how word meanings originate in people and how each person's meaning for a word is controlled by many variables.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how sociological context is more important than dictionary definitions in determining one's meanings for words.

Resources

Dictionaries (current)

Conditions

Room for small group work within the room

Time

Five hours

Procedure

1. Students in groups make lists of current slang terms and define them.
2. Each group chooses one term and definition and compares it to any dictionary definition, noting differences in method of defining.
3. From group reports on differences of definition method, the class decides on a form for defining a symbol in a dictionary.
4. Groups prepare "dictionary" definitions of slang terms.
5. Class "dictionary" of slang completed.

Evaluation

1. Compare slang colloquial words on class lists to those in "older" dictionaries noting and discussing reasons for change.
2. Groups write and perform skits in which words in class dictionary would be used appropriately or inappropriately.

Objective: 8

Language Concepts: IIA, B, C, D, E, H, IIIB, C, IVA

Major Activity

Abstracting Ideas from Reading into Visual Symbols

General Objectives

1. The student will demonstrate how symbols are arbitrarily chosen and how to work towards agreement on referent.
2. The student will demonstrate how any arrangement of symbols signifies only one possible set of relationships.

Specific Objectives

1. The student will demonstrate how the set of personalized, subjective referents he has chosen to symbolize excluded other possibilities.
2. The student will demonstrate his responsibility to his audience by identifying, defining, and explaining his referents for his nonverbal symbols and will encourage his audience to question him.

Resources

High interest reading material, old magazines, glue, construction paper

Conditions

Appropriate for making collages

Time

Dependent on length and difficulty of reading material and size of groups. One hour for construction, 2 to 3 for all members of a group to finish their presentations

Procedure

1. Display reading material, let student choose and read.
2. Students individually make list of referents to be symbolized and possible arrangements.
3. Construct collage.

Evaluation

Individuals explain collages to groups of 4 or 5, and in so doing, each will explain his interpretation of the reading material. The group soon sees how the symbols are completely arbitrary and how the speaker is explaining the referent so communication can take place. Hopefully, two individuals will use the same literature as a basis for the collage and the group can compare choice of referents, symbols and arrangements. The group as a whole evaluates each collage and presentation on the following form:

Name
Title of Reading Selection
7 important ideas to the reader (referents)
7 symbols
appropriateness of symbol
effectiveness of arrangement or order
clarity of explanation of referents.

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Writing for a Defined Audience

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how knowledge about a writer's audience is necessary because meanings for words are in people, not in the words.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how identifying her/his audience by searching for similar backgrounds, interests, occupations will help direct writing for maximum impact.

Resources

People in the community, lists of words, technical book

Conditions

Room for small group work

Time

One or more class periods

Procedure

1. Students write individual definitions for the following words (make up an appropriate list, both concrete and abstract):
2. Compare definitions in discussion in small groups and discuss reasons (past experiences) for variations in definition. After 15 minutes, ask groups to conclude why definitions vary.
3. Ask groups to list 5 categories of people who might agree on definitions for each word (2 words from the list to a group). Groups present lists of people who might have a common definition. Ask if *all* members of each group identified would have the same definition.
4. Read section of a highly technical book to a class. Discuss why it confused them and whom it wouldn't confuse. Discuss why the writer wrote this way.
5. Ask groups to discuss what steps a writer must take, before writing, in terms of the audience. Each group reports the steps they identified to the class.

Evaluation

Students create lists of words or phrases that could be defined in different ways. Interview members of community for definitions and reasons for definitions. Report results to class.

Objective: 8

Major Classification

Role of Verbal Language

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Speaking

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how use of formal or informal language depends on context and the situation.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how adjusting language to fit the people and the situation, and positive connotation, is necessary in facilitating communication.

Resources

People, paper, pen, or tape recorder

Conditions

Isolation for recording, work outside the classroom

Time

Two to three hours

Procedure

1. The students prepare sales approach for a product sold by a group in the school for the following people. What would he/she say to them to make them buy?
   a. A student friend
   b. An adult friend
   c. A student they don't know
   d. An adult they don't know
   e. A parent
   f. A brother or sister
   g. A minister or priest
   h. A city official.

Evaluation

1. Approach 3 of the above people. Write or record their responses.
2. Role-play different students' approaches. Compare and discuss appropriateness of language level and choices and positive connotation.

Objective: 8

Language Concept: IIB

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Speaking

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the meanings of symbols are determined arbitrarily.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how communication is essential in developing a positive, secure, self image and in feeling an accepted member of a group.

Resources

List of nonsense words and their definitions, tape recorders

Conditions

Class or a group which is discreet and which can follow through on an activity over a prolonged period

Time

4-6 weeks

Procedure

1. Students make up a list of 20 nonsense words.
2. Students assign meanings after agreeing upon them.
3. Students use words until they are adept at conversing with them.
4. Students use the words outside the classroom never revealing their definitions or purpose.
5. During classtime, students record experiences and reactions of people who don't know the referents or meanings — either in writing or on tape recorders.

Evaluation

If on tape, play back and evaluate experiences — discussion of reasons for the various reactions.

Objective: 8

Major Activity

Discussion and Writing

General Objectives

1. To reduce quibbling on the dictionary meaning of words.
2. To increase the use of words as mere tokens for what we wish to convey.

Specific Objective

To generate meanings (encoder's probable intent, decoder's inferred response) through observation of word sounds, spelling and punctuation clues, sentence structure, and context.

Resources

Lewis Carroll's "Jabberwocky"
A number of different dictionaries available

Conditions

Usual classroom

Time

One to three class periods

Procedure

1. Student underlines or lists words unfamiliar to him.
2. Student seeks dictionary definitions of unfamiliar words.
3. Discussion/speculation: (a) How can we account for the absence of so many from the accepted lexicons? (b) How can we account for the inclusion of some specifically coined by Lewis Carroll? (c) How can we respond intelligently to unfamiliar words *not* defined in standard dictionaries? (d) To what extent should we rely on the authority of dictionary definitions — i.e., is a dictionary the "final word"?
4. Student records his impressions of meanings (intended and inferred) for the given words, probable functions of those words, and the clues that lead him to his impressions.
   Look for consensus in meanings, in functions, and particularly in clues and processes students use to arrive at their meanings.

Supplemental Procedure

1. Do research on the processes of word creation. How do new words enter the language? What factors lead to their remaining in the lexicon?
2. Do research on the means by which new words are given dictionary recognition and definition. What are a dictionary's strengths? What are its limitations? How does the statement "Words don't mean, people do" apply?

Evaluation

Apply approach and/or understanding to the unfamiliar or nonsense words in a popular song, a sales pitch, or an example of contemporary doublespeak.

Major Activity

Controlling Speech Qualities for the Listener

General Objective

To reduce the practice of talking fast and/or loudly (also, to reduce the practice of talking too slowly and/or softly).

Specific Objective

To determine the range of the most pleasing volume and pace of speaking.

Resources

Record player with numbered volume and tempo controls, any record with narration

Conditions

Extremely quiet atmosphere during the listening phases

Time

One or two class periods

Procedure

To de-personalize the goal, thus rendering it nonthreatening, at the outset use a record player with both volume and tempo controls. Play for the students a record with narration. Start on a low volume number, and have students raise hands when the sound is first audible to them. Next, start again with low volume, gradually increase it on the record, and have students raise hands when the point is reached of greatest listening comfort. Tally the numbers at each part of the continuum. Increase the sound to the point at which no one is comfortable listening to it.

Discuss what just occurred. Did various persons react differently to the same volume? Did everyone experience the greatest listening comfort at exactly the same point? Or, was there a "listening range" about which persons seemed to cluster? (The class — or one pupil — may wish to make a graph from the data.) What seemed to happen when sound was too loud for our listening? Were we paying attention to the content of the message, or did the noise get in the way? What experiences have you had in which the volume made it difficult to concentrate on the content (too loud a sound-track at the movie theater, a faulty microphone at a convocation, etc.)?

Next, use the tempo controls in the same manner as the volume controls were used to determine the most comfortable listening pace, and survey the class. Discuss the range of tempo that makes it easiest to understand the message. Would the difficulty of the content of the record ever make a difference in the best tempo for it to be played? What can we, as listeners, do to insure that the speed and tempo of what we listen to is best for us? What can we as speakers do? Are we aware of our audience? How can the audience provide feedback to the speaker?

The teacher may wish to present the idea of the signal system used by television technicians to inform the announcer on camera of his pace in speaking ("stretch it out" with the hands pantomiming pulling taffy, or "speed it up," with hand rolling quickly over hand). Ask what merits would a system of this type have if adapted to other speech situations. (Pro and con.)

Evaluation

In more personalized situations in the classroom, observe whether students are providing feedback to each other and to the teacher concerning these mechanical parts of their own communication. Observe whether such feedback is given in a tactful and constructive manner.

Major Activity

Oral Communication

General Objective

To reduce language practices that lead to misunderstanding and confusion; to increase language practices that lead to understanding and that reduce confusion.

Specific Objectives

1. To increase the practice of talking with deliberation.
2. To decrease the practice of interrupting, starting to talk before the other person is finished, contradicting with a quick "yes, but."
3. To increase the practice of listening with genuine attention, waiting for a turn to speak, beginning with something like "if this is what you mean, then . . ."

Resources

Any material adaptable for general class discussion

Conditions

Classroom with movable chairs to be arranged in two concentric circles

Time

Two or more days

Procedure

The class selects two topics to discuss. The prime criterion for selection is that everybody can react.

The class is divided into pairs of one discussant and one monitor. Discussants occupy the inner circle. As the first group discusses its topic, each monitor records and charts the discussion behavior of his partner. The roles are then reversed for a second discussion. Teacher may suspend discussion temporarily to examine particular processes in use. Teacher may also ask a particular discussant/monitor pair to switch roles in mid-discussion.

Evaluation

In a post-discussion evaluation session immediately following the discussions, productive and counter-productive discussion techniques are summarized. The class is afforded the opportunity to transfer productive discussion techniques to a general class discussion.

Major Activity

Reducing Interruption and Disagreements

General Objective

To decrease the practice of interrupting, starting to talk before the other person is finished, contradicting with a quick "yes, but."

Specific Objective

To cause greater student awareness of inconsiderate practices which impede communication.

Resources

None

Conditions

Room for a large circle of children (10-12) to sit comfortably

Time

One class period

Procedures

The teacher assigns approximately half the class the task of planning a class party or another project involving group discussion. This group sits in a circle for ease in talking together. Meanwhile, an outer circle of students is unobtrusively assigned the task of noting specific instances of inconsiderate communication (interrupting, tactlessly contradicting). Afterwards, the class evaluates the proceeding in terms of both product and process. What specifically was accomplished by the group? Was there interruption? How did interruption hinder smooth completion of the task? How did it hurt others' feelings and/or enthusiasm? Note: Rather than having an inner and outer circle, an alternative method would be to tape record such a discussion. Then, the whole class, having been participants, can evaluate themselves. First play the tape back to evaluate the success in accomplishing the task assigned (product). Then play the tape again, this time with the focus being on *process*. (Did leaders emerge? Did all participate? Did some get cut off by others? etc.). Perhaps a student will recognize that the completion of the task was inhibited by problems in the process of talking together.

Evaluation

Procedures for evaluation were included above.

Major Activity

Viewing Object Pictures in Order to Formulate Questions

General Objective

Children will relate the pictures to their own past or present experiences.

Specific Objective

Use of the inquiry technique will provide opportunities for verbal language development and for meaningful word association for increasing retention.

Resources

Filmstrips or pictures

Conditions

Comfortable classroom atmosphere

Time

As long as seems necessary

Procedure

1. Project a frame or object picture.
2. Ask concrete questions concerning:
   a. color of object(s)
   b. number of objects and the number of features of each object — feet, head, wings, etc.
   c. size and shape
   d. positions or the relationship of one object to another: above, below, first, last, right, left, front, back, etc.
   e. names of component parts of the object: arm, tail, handle, etc.
3. Ask experiential questions to help pupils recall and relate the object pictures to their own past or present experiences: "What can you do to and with the object?"
   a. If the object is a dog, responses may be limited to: "Walk him," "Feed him," "Pet him."
   b. Guide pupils with "Can you" questions so they can discover that they can play with, love, like, smile at, dream about, hurry home to, etc. Eliciting such interactions can be crucial in the mastery of comprehension skills.
4. Formulate abstract questions to stimulate pupils' motivation toward the investigation of many different facets of objects and to cause them to view the objects in greater perspective:
   a. What are some other objects that have the same characteristics as the object being viewed?
   b. What makes the object function (work)?
   c. What are some atypical ways that the object can be used?

Evaluation

Use other object pictures and have the pupils formulate questions. This can be done by having a small group take over the questioning responsibility.

Objective: 11

Major Activity

Questioning for Clarification

General Objective

To reduce the practice of asking rhetorical and tricky questions; to increase the use of matter-of-fact questions that invite more information.

Specific Objective

To more adequately recognize questions, which, by their very wording, channel the respondent's answer.

Resources

Group of photos, illustrations

Conditions

Classroom

Time

One class period

Procedure

Six or seven pictures are passed around the class. Each child takes a few seconds to look each one over. (The pictures should be scenes involving some type of observable action — a bank robbery, parade, family picnic, etc.) Then the pictures should be collected. The teacher proceeds to ask students to write answers to questions for which no answer is provided in the picture, such as "What weapon was the man holding in the bank robbery?" or "How many children were in the picnic picture?" (The answers would be "no weapon at all," and "no children.") However, many children will have written other answers, based upon the way the question was asked. Discuss the ramifications of allowing questions to channel thinking. What might happen if you were a witness to a crime? Discuss the type of question that would really lead to reliable information.

Evaluation

Have children make short reports to the class each time they notice themselves (or others) falling victim to "tricky" questions. Have them decide how the question could have been altered to produce less-channeled responses. Students should become better aware of tricky or leading questions.

Objective: 11

Language Concepts: IIB, D, E, F, H
IIIA, B, C
IVA, B, C, D

Major Activity

Discovering Language Concepts Through Reading or Viewing and Discussing Responses

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how discussion of an individual's response to word symbols in a group can lead to a consensus that is broadened and enriched.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how use of questioning techniques can lead to a consideration of alternatives.

Resources

High interest reading or viewing selection, paper, pencil, and a previous discussion of theme or meaning in literature

Conditions

Normal classroom

Time

From one-half to a full class period

Procedure

1. Students read or view.
2. Students record in writing in a few sentences their idea of meaning or theme.
3. Divide students into small groups of 5 or 6.
4. In groups, students write 5 questions they would like to discuss.
5. Starting with the least abstract question, students discuss and write a short one-sentence answer.
6. Teacher shows each group how to reword each answer as another question, and how to continue this with each question and answer. (Be sure that the recorder keeps a brief answer for all questions.)
7. After all questions are discussed, group decides on a statement of theme.
8. Groups compare statements of theme.
9. Each individual compares his original statement of theme to the group statements.

Evaluation

1. Groups discuss merits and disadvantages of the group process, with questioning, compared to trying to deal with the material individually.
2. Using new material, have students repeat the process without teacher help.

Major Activity	**Interviewing**
General Objective	To increase the use of matter-of-fact questions that invite more information.
Specific Objective	To obtain information about various occupations through interviewing community resource people in those occupations.
Resources	Sources of information to identify community members in various occupational specialties: Yellow Pages, Business Directory, etc.
Conditions	Opportunity to work outside the school
Time	Approximately two weeks
Procedure	After identifying occupations to be explored and individuals who represent those occupations, students divide responsibility and proceed to set up and conduct interviews. Probable sequence: (a) Student writes business letter explaining purpose, seeking appointment, providing means for confirmation via stamped, self-addressed post card or envelope. (b) Class determines general questions for interviews; small groups and individuals determine specific questions. (c) Class explores "how-to" of interview situation — dress, manner, beginning, concluding, etc. (d) Interviews are conducted. (e) Thank-you notes are written. (f) Interview reports are written, compiled, and reproduced for class distribution.
Evaluation	Post-interview examination of process: What went well? What could be improved? What questions were unnecessary? What additional questions would have been helpful? What questioning techniques would have led to easier access to or greater scope of information sought?

Objective: 14

Language Concept: IIC

Major Activity

Interpreting Charades to Discover Language Concepts

General Objective

The student will demonstrate how the gestures of non-verbal language also have referents which the sender and the receiver must agree upon before communication can take place.

Specific Objective

The student will demonstrate how nonverbal symbols are taken as facts rather than interpreted as symbols for which there are referents.

Resources

A few students who have played charades

Conditions

Ordinary classroom and a place for a few students to prepare charades

Time

25-30 minutes

Procedure

1. Each student lists movie titles, song titles, T.V. programs or famous sayings. Solicit volunteers and give them the lists. Volunteers prepare during first half of class, or overnight.
2. Performers announce type of title and perform.
3. Class guesses — teacher sits stupidly — confusion.

Evaluation

1. Small groups list reasons for confusion:
   a) didn't know "standard" gestures
   b) no way to show "little words"
   c) some made wild guesses and refused to give them up
   d) no symbols for number of gestures.
2. Identification and definition of "standard" gestures.

Speech Dialects:

A SEQUENCE

Understanding and Appreciating Differences in Speech Dialects

THE RATIONALE FOR DEVISING this *Communities of Speakers* lesson series for children in the upper elementary grades was three-fold in nature:

First, the content of such a study appears to be valuable and exciting for a child whose curiosity about the world "as it really is" probably encompasses the subject of "people as they really speak." The child is a member of a speech community. The child's experiences provide a basis for learning more about his/her own linguistic behavior and the behavior of others who share the gift of language.

Second, the *Communities of Speakers* unit has the potential for developing favorable attitudes toward language usage which differs from his/her own, as it promotes curiosity about differing speech communities.

Third, the *Communities of Speakers* series provide the context for children to gain additional skill with language. Activities such as role-playing, discussing, dramatizing, interviewing, meeting in small groups, creative writing, listening to dialect records of songs and literature, are some of the processes that are incorporated in this series of lessons.

An attempt was made to provide a logically sequential lesson arrangement designed to progressively enlarge the child's concept of a speech community dialect — from the family to occupational group, to regional and social dialect, and, finally, to the study of English dialects in other parts of the world. At the same time, optional activities have been provided which can be implemented or omitted in accordance with variations in individual or group interests and backgrounds.

Evaluation Suggestions:

The specific objectives listed for the lessons have been made in terms of pupil behavior ("The pupil will . . ."); yet these objectives are not rigidly set to define arbitrary kinds of "minimally acceptable behavior." Succes should not be defined solely by the finished product (a list, survey, or report), but also by successful pupil participation in such processes as listening, writing, and speaking. As indicated in lesson ten, teachers may wish to give the students a quiz (oral or written) at the end of the series. However, a more satisfactory evaluation lies with day-to-day informal evaluation based upon the teacher's use of certain aspects of the lesson as "testing" tools. The teacher can evaluate through many of the activities of the unit which are geared to every-pupil response and to the continuous feedback of teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction. Such an evaluation allows for more flexibility in succeeding lessons based upon the results of continuous assessments. "End of the Unit" evaluations tend to prevent eecfftive flexibility in teaching and learning behavior.

Certain of the objectives, especially in lessons eight and nine, are written in terms of pupil attitudes toward the use of language. Since attitudes are difficult to evaluate, careful records should be kept of teacher observations made before and after the lessons.

Lesson 1

General objectives:

to encourage pupils to evolve a broad definition for the term "speech community," by transposing the term "community" into several contexts;
to have pupils recognize that each of us belongs to several speech groups at the same time.

Specific lesson objectives:

The pupil will:

1) participate orally in helping to evolve a definition of speech community, based on pictures of people in various speaking situations,
2) make a list of all the speech groups to which he feels he belongs.

Procedure:

1. Show pictures of groups of people — in an office, in a classroom, at home, etc., — and ask the pupils to decide how each might be considered to be a speech community. To trigger response (if necessary) ask, "What is a community? Is it just a city or town? Or can it be thought of in other ways?" Let the children form a broad definition for the term 'speech community.'

2. Ask children to think of any words that have special meaning just within their own family groups, or just among their friends. Discuss (without exposing secrets!).

3. Ask children, "Do people in certain age groups (children, teens, adults) belong to separate speech groups?" Give pupils time to try to think of arguments to support either a "yes" or "no" answer (or both). Have them share their ideas about this matter orally.

4. Have children write down which speech groups they belong to. Each group listed should use language in a special way among themselves.

5. For the next lesson, have pupils ready to give a few words that have a special meaning in connection with an occupation. (Hint: ask people who work.)

Materials, references, and other comments:

1. Important early in the series is the fact that the term "speech community" has an agreed-upon meaning so that the pupil can use it later to express his/her own thoughts more clearly. Teacher references for such terms as dialect, jargon, and slang may be found in *Dialects-U.S.A.*, by Malmstrom and Ashley,[1] and in *Discovering American Dialects*, by Roger Shuy.[2] The chapter "Variation in Speech" in *An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics* by H. Gleason[3] gives additional background.

3. This question is open to debate, since it depends upon how easily the pupil feels the groups communicate with each other, and how dissimilar their language is. (Impact of the so-called "generation gap" may even manifest itself here.) The idea of slang speech being used by certain groups may be mentioned by pupils. If so, pupils may wish to list their slang expressions and to question their parents, grandparents or other adults about the slang they used when they were younger. (Last suggestion is also listed in *New Directions in English*, Book 5, p. 129.)[4]

[1]NCTE, 1967; [2]NCTE, 1965; [3]Holt, 1961; [4]Harper, 1965.

Lesson 2

General objectives:

to introduce children to "jargon" as a special vocabulary used by a particular speech community (usually an occupational group); to introduce children to the arbitrary nature of word meanings; people can assign particular meanings to the words they use.

Specific objectives:

The pupil will:

1) share with classmates the words he found used in special ways within certain occupations,
2) orally give his opinions about how such words function for people,
3) write an imaginary dialogue in order to put jargon into context.

Procedure:

1. Have children go to the blackboard to list their sets of special vocabulary from a particular occupation. In a game-like format, children may wish to guess the occupation or group which uses the words or phrases listed. The child who brought the words may be consulted if a case seems unsolvable.
2. Introduce the word "jargon" as the name for the kind of vocabulary given in the examples. Ask, "Why do you think people use it? Can people outside the 'in-group' always understand it? Do you think jargon is a good idea? Are there any circumstances when it might not be?"
3. Have children in pairs write imaginary dialogues between persons of two occupational groups. If they wish, they may use the occupation for which they earlier found a special vocabulary. Jargon may be used if the children think it fits.
4. Either at this lesson or the next one, have the children who wish to do so read their dialogues aloud to the class.
5. As optional activity, some pupils may wish to investigate the type of jargon known as gobbledygook.

Materials, references, and other comments:

1. This activity is the follow-through of last lesson assignment — to find words used in connection with a particular occupation.
2. Step 2 allows much room for divergent responses in exploring the function of jargon in our language. If additional examples of jargon are necessary to clarify the ideas, many may be found in "Cant and Jargon," p. 191-9 in *The Story of Language* by Mario Pei.[5]
3. Step 3 of Procedure allows children to "play" with effective communication. They may decide what the topic of conversation is to be; if the topic is work-related, they must decide to what extent, if any, work jargon will become a part of the dialogue. Interesting, too, might be dialogues in which jargon hampers communication. Writing, rather than creative drama, in this case, gives the child time to choose the exact words he wishes and to make changes if he chooses.
4. A source for this activity (for able pupils) is the book *Words in Sheep's Clothing*, by Mario Pei.[6]

[5]Mentor, 1965; [6]Hawthorne, 1969.

Lesson 3

General objective:

Previous lessons emphasized that people belong to many speech groups — family, age groups, occupational groups — each with special vocabulary. Since one person belongs to many speech groups at once, this lesson is designed to introduce pupils to the idea of choosing appropriate speech for the situation and persons with which the student finds himself.

Specific objectives:

The pupil will:
modify his speech to suit particular settings and audiences through role-playing in imaginary situations.

Procedure:

1. Have pupils volunteer to "act out," after a few minutes preparation, situations in which language might depend on the audience to whom one speaks or on the setting. For example, you are telling your friends about a football game. You are telling your aunt about the school play. Or, the teacher has scolded you for something you didn't do, and you are trying to explain this to a classmate; then, to the principal. (Examples are from *The World of Language*, Bk. 6, p. 161.)
2. Have the class discuss how communication would be hampered if no provision was allowed for situation or audience.
3. Have groups decide what kinds of situations are most appropriate for the slang and jargon which they examined during the last two lessons.
4. Have some pupils read aloud to the group conversational excerpts spoken in both informal and formal usage. Have the students write a few sentences telling about the situations in which the people are likely to be speaking. (Consensus about general type of setting should run high if pupils realize the situational factor.)

Materials, references, and other comments:

1. According to *New Directions in English*, Harper and Row, Bk. 5, p. 127, "You and your classmates are speaking in a *social dialect* when you use special words or phrases that older people seldom use." *The World of Language*, Follett, Bk. 6, p. 161, states, "Another kind of dialect all people use is social dialect, speech suited to the occasion and the audience." Roger Shuy, Harold Gleason, and others seem to use the term "social dialect" in a somewhat different sense, in contexts which imply a necessary correlation with class distinctions and social stratification. The concept of *situational* dialect (choosing appropriate language), rather than the linguists' social dialect concept, is the idea for elaboration in this lesson. Chapter 8 in *New Directions in English*, Harper and Row, Bk. 5, stresses this situational concept.
4. Conversational excerpts demonstrating informal and formal usage can be found in *New Directions in English*, Bk. 6, P. 216, "Variety of Style in Spoken English."

Lesson 4

General objectives:

to introduce the concept of regional dialects by having children note the characteristics of certain dialects as reproduced on recordings;
to practice oral sharing of opinions and ideas of pupils;
to encourage pupils to listen carefully to speech.

Specific lesson objectives:

The pupil will:

1) list differences and similarities of a speech excerpt in comparison with his own speech;
2) discuss with others his observations;
3) hypothesize a reason or reasons to account for the observed differences.

Procedure:

1. Play a recording of a New England dialect and have children listen to it carefully. Do not yet allude to "regional dialect" or give clues about the speaker's origin. Have pupils listen again, and ask them to list similarities and differences with their own speech that they can notice.

2. Have children split into small groups to compare their observations briefly. Draw groups together to discuss points of consensus as well as observable data discovered by only a few children.

3. Ask children to guess why the speaker talks in the manner we observed. The idea of "part of the country" or "where the speaker comes from" may be mentioned by pupils, if it hasn't already been mentioned in the course of discussion.

4. Ask pupils to think of
   1) a personal experience they had, or
   2) a movie or TV program they saw, or
   3) a book they read (which they might bring to class) —

   in which they could tell the part of America from which the speaker came. Discuss at the next meeting.

Materials, references, and other comments:

1. Dialect records are available from public libraries. The British Drama League records, consisting of twelve British dialect records and four American speech records, are available at the Minneapolis Public Library. The American records include samples of Midland, Southern, New York, Brooklyn, Boston, and other speech.

2. Note: Comments about pronunciation will probably abound if these records are used. Vocabulary and grammatical differences do not seem as frequent or apparent from the records.

3. Other "whys" of dialect, such as how it begins, when it changes, or why it resists change, are concerns which some pupils may wish to investigate. One source of information is *New Directions in English*, Bk. 4, p. 141-5, "History of a Dialect."

4. The assignment of Step 4 encourages the pupil to think in terms of geography or region to discover certain speech differences.

Lesson 5

General objectives:

to review the concept of regional speech variation (dialect) presented in Lesson 4;
to discover and use one of the methods of the linguist in studying language by having pupils survey their own and others' speech.

Specific lesson objectives:

The pupil will:

1) relate a brief incident from personal experience, books, TV, or movies in which he could identify a person with a region by that person's speech.
2) Make hypotheses about probable meanings for the lines which mark off dialect regions on a map.
3) Survey by prepared questionnaire certain speech characteristics of self and others.

Procedure:

1. Show children a map of the main dialect areas of the U.S. Children may wish to refer to it as they relate incidents from TV, books, movies, etc., in which they could regionally "place" a person by his speech.
2. After incidents have been related, draw attention again to the map. Ask, "What do the lines on the map tell us? How do you suppose the person who made the map knew where to draw the lines? Do you think that the speech always changes as abruptly as the lines would lead us to think?" Introduce the term linguist as a person who studies language.
3. Ask the class to act as linguists temporarily. Distribute a ditto sheet which lists samples of alternate usages and vocabulary. Have children circle the expressions that they use.
4. Do not yet discuss the results of the self-survey. Rather, have children ask people at home, in the neighborhood, newcomers, elderly people, etc., the same questions. Also have them record their subjects' place of birth and where they've lived during most of their lives. (Results of these investigations are to be shared at the next meeting).

Materials, references, and other comments:

1. This activity is the fruition of ideas triggered by the assignment in Lesson 4. The pupils' own experiences with regional speech form the basis for the oral sharing.
2. Large maps of dialect areas of the U.S., suitable for bulletin boards, may be obtained free in ad materials from Ginn and Co.
   The concept induced through questioning is the idea that although lines on the map delineate speech regions, often the boundaries are not as abrupt as the lines imply.
   The second question in Step 2 allows a natural lead-in to the methods of the linguist (on a very elementary level).
3. Procedures 3 and 4 introduce one basic method of a person who describes language and has the child use the method himself. By taking surveys and recording data, the pupil may be more likely to look objectively at differing language usage than that to which he is accustomed. Survey items may be prepared to tap expressions which have regional variation by consulting "A Checklist of Regional Expressions" in Shuy's *Discovering American Dialects.*

Lesson 6

General objectives:

to have child discover vocabulary and usage differences based upon the responses of individuals he/she questions;
to give the child an exposure to literature told in a dialect.

Specific lesson objectives:

The pupil will:

1) report results of his/her "home-and-neighborhood" speech survey;
2) hypothesize reasons to account for departures from the more common responses;
3) respond to a folktale containing vocabulary, usage, and pronunciation of Southern mountain areas.

Procedure:

1. Have students report the results of their "home-and-neighborhood" speech survey, while one student tallies responses. In the cases of responses that occur fairly infrequently, have children look at other data they have gathered (subject's place of birth, where he lives now, how long he has lived here). Ask, "Might these things contribute to the words they choose? How? Can you think of anything else that might account for the different usages?"

2. If the neighborhood survey does not result in sufficient variation to illustrate the concept of "different but equally good usages," suggest that the children compose a class letter to a "sister school" in another region of the U.S. Pupils may ask them to co-operate in the investigation by responding to our questionnaire.

3. As a change of pace, read (or have a fluent oral reader, who has volunteered and prepared, read) a selection in a dialect different from that of the students. Ask, "Do you feel the language helps you to enjoy the story?" Answers will vary.

Materials, references, and other comments:

1. Since the surveys are to be made within the same geographical area, there may be little variation on certain items. Nevertheless, the differing usages that *are* found may be focused on by the pupil. The student will use the additional data about the subject to make "educated guesses" about reasons for his usages (there may be no clues from the data). The discussion, however, allows room for speculation and divergent responses.

2. Note: to ensure success in tapping regional variation, be sure to include items that have some known likelihood of being answered differently by the long-distance respondents. For example, if the questionnaire is sent to a school in Missouri, include the items "quarter *to* ten" vs. "quarter *till* ten" and "wait for you" vs. "wait on you." (*Discovering American Dialects* contains a chart, p. 26-7, which gives usages found *in certain parts* of Northern, Midland and Southern areas.)

3. "The Lake that Flew" is a folktale told in a Southern mountain dialect. It is found in the collection *Tall Tales from the High Hills*, edited by Ellis Credle (Nelson, 1957).

Lesson 7

General objectives:

to continue the study of speech variation by examining how dialects come to be;
to recognize various ways in which language changes over time and place.

Specific lesson objectives:

The pupil will:
make guesses about the language changes he might expect in certain hypothetical cases (resembling actual historical instances of speech change).

Procedure:

1. Set the situation by showing two sketches or photos of settlements — Mountainridge and Oceanview. (Ask, "Do the names give you any clues about the towns?") Describe to the class a situation in which people move from Mountainridge to Oceanview. Ask, "What things might the people in Oceanview need words for that the people in Mountainridge wouldn't?" Have pupils make a list of words that the travelers would carry with them but which might become obsolete for the people of Oceanview.
2. If any pupil has investigated the "whys" of dialect, such as reasons for dialect change or how dialects resist change, he may wish to report findings to the class.
3. Have students discover the results of movement or lack of movement by people upon the language they speak. Show a series of maps showing the same communities over a period of years. Their changing relationship with one another should be apparent from new roads shown, the growth of towns, etc. Have students meet in small groups, speculate about dialect changes that might occur over time. A chairman from each group should report their opinions to the class.

Materials, references, and other comments:

1. The first procedure is a modification of the section "Oldtown and Newtown" in *New Directions in English*, Bk. 5, p. 124-5.
2. Procedure Step 2 refers to an extension activity for a small group or an individual (who may have begun work on the problem after it was presented as an optional activity in Lesson 4). Additional information about reasons for dialect change may be found in Shuy's *Discovering American Dialects* (for teacher background and for able students).
3. A concept for discovery and expansion here is a basic one — that communities in contact with each other are more likely to become alike (or at least to borrow freely) in language use. Isolated places, without communication links, are more likely to keep their language habits without modification. *New Directions in English*, Bk. 4, p. 143, affords an excellent example of a simple set of maps which foster speculation about language change.

Lesson 8

General objectives:

to encourage students to familiarize themselves with people who speak dialects different from their own by meeting these people vicariously through literature;
to encourage students to accept and value many variations in speech; to form opinions based on getting to know people "as people" rather than on the basis of linguistic "snobbery," misunderstanding, or prejudice.

Specific lesson objectives:

The pupil will:

1) listen and respond to the story and characters in dialect-laden literature;
2) dramatize certain story incidents by fitting self into a character's role.

Procedure:	**Materials, references, and other comments:**
1. After explaining some background information about setting, begin to read to the class Lois Lenski's *Strawberry Girl*[7] or Louisa Shotwell's *Roosevelt Grady*.[8]	1. Literature read aloud ensures class exposure to a particular situation and set of characters; it gives the class a common experience, which easily becomes a basis of reference for discussion.
2. Give children time to respond orally to the story periodically. (The children will probably react to and empathize with the characters.)	2. The spoken dialect probably won't present problems in communication; it does seem to heighten the authentic portrayal of the persons' lives.
3. Have children "step into the character's shoes" and dramatize parts of the story that they particularly like as the reading progresses. Continue reading to get well into the story in one class meeting.	3. If children are interested and are carried into the story at first reading, the characters should "come alive" sooner for the group. Take enough time for reading aloud, reacting, and acting.
4. Plan a library trip, or bring in other literature containing dialectal speech for children to try in their personal reading. (Caution: some of the literature may be written in a manner so different from conventional prose that reading ease may be hampered. A better idea in such cases might be to have children listen to the dialect spoken — if at all possible.)	4. Selections containing American dialects are listed in Malmstrom and Ashley's *Dialects — U.S.A.*, p. 55-8. However, many of these titles are too difficult for elementary youngsters. Other sources are these collections: *Tall Tales from the High Hills*, edited by Ellis Credle, and *Grandfather Tales*, collected by Richard Chase.[9]

[7]Dell, 1967; [8]World, 1972;
[9]Houghton Mifflin, 1948.

Lesson 9

General objectives:

to show an (exaggerated?) example of attitudes toward dialect hampering human relationships;
to expose pupils to a well-known play (complete with dialogue, stage directions).

Specific objectives:

The pupil will:

1) listen to and react to the song and statement, "Why Can't the English Teach Their Children How to Speak?"
2) Participate as actor in a short scene from *My Fair Lady*.

Procedure:

1. Play the recording from *My Fair Lady*, "Why Can't the English Teach Their Children How to Speak?" Explain a bit of the background of the play. Distribute copies of Act I, Scene I (Covent Garden scene), to the pupils. Have the class read the scene and split into two or three groups to give everyone maximum opportunity to play a part.

2. Draw the groups together to discuss the first scene. Ask, "What does Prof. Higgins do for a living? How well do you think he is treating Eliza? Does her 'kerbstone' English make her a disgrace, as Higgins seems to think? Is he being fair to her?"

3. If children indicate the desire to produce the first scene or to read all of the play, they may. (The excerpt in class gives everyone a "taste" of the play; for some the rest of it may be too sophisticated.)

4. As an optional activity, return to the song, "Why Can't the English." One line goes:

   There are places where English completely disappears, In America they haven't used it for years.

   Ask the children to write their own opinions about this statement by Prof. Higgins.

Materials, references, and other comments:

1. The song is a clever, humorous comment on so-called "proper" English. The selection can be found on the original Broadway production soundtrack of *My Fair Lady*. Copies of the play are available in hard-cover or paperback editions.

2. Hopefully Lessons 5 and 6, which focused on the work of the linguist, will provide the students with a clue to Prof. Higgins' occupation. The questions asked refer to Higgins' treatment of Eliza. A question of ethics and values is implicit — should a person treat another in a particular manner because of his speech? Is this fair?

3. Although R. Strickland in *The Language Arts in the Elementary School*[10] states in the chapter "Dramatic Interpretation" that "the best productions are those for which no lines are written," perhaps this short production (if student interest runs high) may be profitable in terms of planning, chance for teamwork, and enjoyment.

[10]Heath, 1965

Lesson 10

General objectives:

In previous lessons we have dealt with American and British (via *My Fair Lady*) ways of speaking. But dialect is a universal phenomenon; in this lesson the student will be exposed to dialects of other parts of the world.

Specific lesson objectives:

The pupil will:

1) listen and react to another dialect of the English-speaking world, an Australian dialect;

2) find more information about interesting English and non-English dialects, if the child's curiosity leads in this direction;

3) listen to dialectal literature.

Procedure:	**Materials, references, and other comments:**
1. Play a recording of "Waltzing Matilda" for the class. Some of the words may be guessed from context; others may have to be written on the board with a comparable American English term. Give students time to figure out the story that the folksong tells; let them try to sing it.	1. The idea of vocabulary and dialect being to some degree interlocked is illustrated by the first song, in which word meanings will be unfamiliar. The lyrics can be found in *New Directions in English*, Bk. 5, p. 130. The recording "Waltzing Matilda" is available under the Mercury label.
2. To hear Australian pronunciation, play a recording of "Tie Me Kangaroo Down, Sport."	2. The "sound" of Australian pronunciation is apparent in this novelty song, available on a 45 rpm. record, sung by Rolf Harris.
3. Have students who wish to pursue dialects further form committees to explore special interests. Some topics may include British English words, the diverse Chinese dialects, High and Low German. A short group report may be a means of sharing information.	3. Not all the students will wish to explore dialects in the depth that Procedure 3 entails. These pupils may wish to continue their individual reading of stories containing dialect (or do other personal reading).
4. Be sure to continue reading to the class the story written in an American dialect, that was started in Lesson 8.	4. Oral reading to the class of this story will probably continue after the lesson series has been completed.
5. If time permits and additional evaluation of pupil understanding seems appropriate, give a short quiz stressing the main ideas of the lesson series.	5. *New Directions in English*, Bk. 4, p. T48-9, lists suggestions for evaluation of language variation. Caution: use only the activities which are valid to test the emphases of this unit.

General Semantics

A SEQUENCE*

IT SHOULD BE NOTED that most of the lessons in this unit seem to imply that the total class is operating as a functional unit, proceeding together throughout the eighteen lessons. In fact, that is what happened in Black's dissertation study. The eighteen lessons were completed in a six week period of time by all of the four classes involved.

This publication places a strong emphasis on small group work by students within any given class — with the implication that not all students would have to proceed at the same pace. (See "Small Group Training . . ." pp. A15-18, and A to E under point 4, "Learning, Interaction, and Communicating," p. 51.) For mastery, six weeks might be sufficient for some students while others might require eighteen weeks.

The point to be stressed is that there are many ways to organize student learning. Small group work can perform an effective role in classes that start on a given date and end on a given date for all of the students enrolled. On the other hand, students may be served better when some of them are permitted to spend more time on certain objectives and to take up certain objectives in a different order.

Also, it should be noted that seventeen of the eighteen lessons can be grouped under three of the objectives listed on pp. 52-53: ten lessons under objective 1, four lessons under 4, and three lessons under 5[1]. . . . According to Black's dissertation, the eighteen lessons as organized and as dealt with were effective in reducing prejudice. On the other hand, there was no evidence in Black's study that:

1. a six-week period is the best length of time for dealing with the objectives in his eighteen lessons;
2. a different proportion of objectives would have been more or less effective;
3. the inclusion of other objectives would have been more or less effective;
4. a different order of objectives and materials would have been more or less effective.

It seems reasonable to conclude that if we were to work with students on a broader array of related objectives over a longer period of time, we should expect to be more effective in reducing prejudice, improving writing performance, improving critical thinking and critical reading, and increasing the development of creativity. (See pp. A1-2.)

The long-range goal of this publication is to encourage the utilization of the language and communication objectives included from kindergarten to grade 12.

The only time it would be recommended that a teacher follow this 18-lesson sequence in a period of six weeks would be a last opportunity situation — at the 11th or 12th grade level when the teacher knows that his/her students have not had this type of language study and will not have another opportunity before graduation. The purpose of presenting this sequence of lessons is not for emulation or replication but to help teachers improve upon what has been done.

*Edited version of lessons from *The Effect of Instruction in General Semantics on Ethnic Prejudice as Expressed in Measurements of Social Distance, Ethnocentrism and Authoritarianism*, a dissertation by John A. Black, New York University, 1971.

[1]Although some of these lessons repeat material in earlier lessons, it has seemed important to preserve Black's project in its entirety.

Semantics*

by John E. Donovan

Call a woman a *kitten*, but never a *cat;*
You can call her a *mouse*, cannot call her a *rat;*
Call a woman a *chicken*, but never a *hen;*
Or you surely will not be her caller again.

You cannot call her a *duck*, cannot call her a *goose;*
You can call her a *deer*, but never a *moose;*
You can call her a *lamb*, but never a *sheep;*
Economic she lives, but you can't call her *cheap.*

You can say she's a *vision*, can't say she's a *sight;*
And no woman is *skinny*, she's slender and *slight;*
If she should burn you up, say she sets you afire,
And you'll always be welcome, you tricky old liar.

*Originally printed in *The Saturday Evening Post*, 1946.

General Semantics

Section II B

Lesson 1

INTRODUCTION

Objective: 1

Motivation

Read the poem "Semantics" by John E. Donovan. The title of this poem is "Semantics." How would you define Semantics? After eliciting various answers write the following definition on the board.

General Semantics is concerned with the dynamics of meaning in relationship to human behavior.

It is a method of studying the part language plays in human affairs — how language affects behavior.

Aim

To understand what general semantics is about so we know what to expect from unit on general semantics.

Procedure

List the italicized words in the poem on the blackboard in columns.

(1) What is the relationship of these words (words are related — many are synonyms, all are adjectives)?

(2) Since most of these adjectives are synonyms we should be able to use them on the same girl and get the same reaction. Would a girl react the same way to the words in Column A as she would react to those in Column B? Why not?

(3) How many misunderstandings have you observed in the last few days at home, in school, on the street, read about in the newspaper, or heard on the radio, or seen on television? (List on board — war news, strikes, fights, etc.)

(4) How many of these misunderstandings do you think involved the use of language? (Go down list.)

Conclusion

Why then should we study general semantics?

Application

Homework #1 in your diary, either clip out a newspaper article which shows a problem caused by language or write a paragraph describing a conflict you were in or overheard caused by language.

Did you know how powerful words are?

(1) Can cause disease (stuttering, voodoo).

(2) Can *cure* disease (faith-healer, psychosomatic illnesses and psychoanalysis — curing mental illnesses through language).

Lesson 2

Objectives: 1 and 8

Is the Study of General Semantics Important?

Motivation

"Let's test what language habits have to do with understanding directions."

(1) Ask pupils to decide among themselves on a very simple command to give you, such as to draw a triangle on the board. Agree very pleasantly and ask whether they are sure as to what you are to do. Then proceed to devise as many mistakes as you can. Draw the triangle in pencil. When pupils protest and demand chalk, draw the triangle too small to be seen, or draw zig-zag lines, or draw on the wall. Continue the game until it is clear that pupils begin to show an awareness of how difficult it is to give simple, clear directions.

(2) "This game exaggerates a very common occurrence in language habits of people that causes many of the misunderstandings we discussed during our previous lesson. Does anyone know what it is?" (We have many meanings for any one word; but many people forget this fact.)

Aim

To understand why it may be important to study general semantics.

Procedure

(1) "Let's see how ordinary everyday language can get us into trouble. In your notebooks draw a picture or say in words *exactly* what you think of when I write the following words on the chalkboard: Man, woman, hot, cold, fast, slow, water." (Go over the answers, getting as many *different* answers as possible.)

(2) "It seems that in many instances when we use these simple, everyday words, we literally don't know what we are talking about. But *scientists* usually seem to know what each other is talking about. Why?" (They usually use more restrictive symbols than words, and they are more precise in their use of word symbols when dealing with science.)

(3) "How would a scientist say each of these words: 212°F, 32°F, 100 mph, H_2O?"
Note: Alfred Korzybski, the man who first formulated the principles of general semantics, was an engineer. He was struck with the observation that scientists' use of language often resulted in the building of bridges, the cure of diseases, etc., while the average person's use of language often resulted in wars and misunderstanding. He was convinced that we could learn to use language more efficiently and accurately to achieve understanding and agreement.

(4) "Let's further the relationship between language and behavior. Try thinking one thought without using words. Can anyone do it?" (Read "Everything Has a Name" by Helen Keller.)

(5) Have a pupil "who can stand it" come up to scrape his nail on the blackboard. Stop him from carrying out act just as students react. Point out that they were reacting to words before act was performed (language affected behavior).

(6) "Can anyone think of the name of a machine which works on the principle that language affects behavior (emotions)?" (The lie detector.) Explain how it works.

Summary

We may understand more about our thinking and our actions if we learn about our language habits.

Application

How would the following use of language affect behavior?

(1) television or radio → study

(2) grouchy remark → speaker and listener

(3) use of a nickname → behavior of person who is called it *and* one who uses it.

(4) How would it change your thinking or feeling if you called your temper "babyish" rather than "uncontrollable," your pain "uncomfortable" rather than "unbearable," your lesson "difficult" rather than "impossible," etc? Try this language habit in everyday life — report the changes in attitude and behavior.

Materials

"Everything Has a Name" — Helen Keller, from *Story of My Life*, Dell (paper) $0.75.

Lesson 3

The Word is Not the Thing, the Map is Not the Territory

Objectives: 1 and 8

Motivation

A tourist from another city — Miami — is visiting New York City and wishes to take one picture to send home with the caption, "This is New York City." Where should he take it? (Allow some argument — list on board.) Okay, let's make it easier — we'll allow him to take three pictures and say this is New York City. Now, where? (After additional arguments — all right, we will let him take as many pictures as he pleases, we'll buy as much film as necessary.) Allow students to debate this until they see that no amount of pictures can really be New York City — that people, atmosphere, spirit, etc., canot come alive in pictures. Photos are mere symbols — things that represent reality. The tourist's friends must come to New York City and experience the thing itself, not the symbol.

Transition

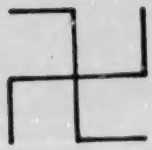
A great problem in communication is that we sometimes confuse the word for the thing it stands for. We act as if words were real objects — as if the maps were the territories they stood for.

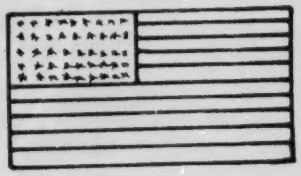
Examples

(1) Closely watch a baby who is beginning to talk. After a while it becomes obvious that when she makes the noise "foo" she means a young female human. Another baby seems to make the noise "ka" to mean a young female human. When the first baby grows up he/she learns when one refers to a young female human one should make the noise — *muchacha*. Baby 2 grows up to learn that when referring to a young female human one should make the noise *madel*. You have been taught to make the noise *girl* to refer to the same thing — which one is correct? (Madel = German, muchacha = Spanish, girl = English, all refer to the same thing—which word *is* the thing it represents?) *(Neither* — because calling it a "pen" won't change it — the word is *not* the thing — the map is not the territory — they are symbols which stand for things.)

(2) Take out a clean piece of paper. Now write on it the word Mother — then your mother's name. Now spit on the paper or step on it and crumple it up — how do you feel? Why? (Discuss.) If you wrote the word *mutter* or *madre* or *chuchu* (the Eskimo word for "mother") would you feel the same? Don't they "mean" the same thing? Are they the things they represent?

(3) Let's make a list of other famous symbols — this time *nonverbal*:





If we all got together and decided to make symbol 1 stand for the Jewish faith and symbol 3 stand for Nazis, how would Jews 100 years from now feel about symbol #3? How would fascists and neo-nazis feel about symbol #3 100 years from now? How would each feel about symbol 1 in 100 years?

(4) Painting symbol #1 on walls of certain houses of worship has caused much anxiety. Wars (the crusades) were fought in the name of symbol #2. People were killed because they considered themselves as part of a group represented by symbol #3. Many college students were severely beaten because they burned symbol #4.

In the light of what we have learned about symbols, maps and territories, what can we say in reaction to the four statements presented above?

Summary

That symbols are only representations of reality; they only stand for things and, in and of themselves, are *not* the thing.

Evaluation-Application

In your diaries, either write an account or clip out a newspaper article illustrating a misunderstanding or unfortunate event that happened because someone forgot that the word is *not* the thing, the map is *not* the territory.
Which *names* do you dislike because you associate them with a person: "Why don't you name your baby Carol?" "No, I hate the name Carol; I know a girl named Carol and she's ugly." Carol (symbol) = *thing*.

Materials

The Emperor's New Clothes by Hans Christian Andersen.
Picture of hardhats attacking college students for ripping up the American flag. (Or similar picture.)

Lesson 4

Symbol and Signal Reactions

Objectives: 1 and 8

Motivation

Hold up a book — "I have an excellent boy's book here — who would like to examine it for possible use for the next book report?"
"I have an excellent girl's book here — who would like to examine it for possible use in the next book report?" — then ask them to raise their hands again for each choice.

"This was a test to see which of you learned yesterday's lesson and which of you didn't — those boys who were not interested in the 'girl's' book and vice versa were reacting to symbols as if they were the things themselves — actually neither of the books can be classified as a girl's book or boy's book — you were reacting to the symbols rather than what they stand for — the thing.

"Reacting to words as if they were the things themselves is called *signal reactions*, while more delayed, thoughtful reactions, realizing that one is reacting to a symbol — something which stands for something but is not the thing itself — is a symbol reaction." (Write the two words and definitions on the blackboard.)

(1) Which kind of behavior is more mature? Why?

(2) But most of our misunderstanding originates in *signal* reactions.

(3) **Examples:**
If we yelled "Fire!" at 3:30 a.m. in the halls of our apartment house, what would happen?

(4) If someone mentions the word steak when we are extremely hungry what happens? (Explain or have a student explain Pavlov's experiments with dogs.) Why then is signal reaction animal behavior?

(5) Turn to a student and ask, "Wouldn't you say giving a signal reaction is acting like a bitch? *Bitch* is the sound some people make to represent what we call dog — I merely asked you if acting on a reflex isn't acting like Pavlov's dogs but you gave a signal reaction to the word bitch by turning red."

Conclusion

Why is it usually more desirable to avoid signal reactions (reactions to words) and to favor symbol reactions? How can we change our language habits to encourage *symbol* reactions? (Delay — think before we speak — say to ourselves — the word is not the thing.)

Application

Make a list of words which usually initiate signal reactions and explain what these reactions would probably be —

WORD	SIGNAL REACTION	SYMBOL REACTION
cancer	horror, disgust	
nigger	a fight	

Discuss the story of the hunter who leaves an infant in a cabin, guarded by his dog. The hunter returns, sees the cradle overturned and the baby nowhere in sight. The room is a mess. The dog is lying with blood all over his muzzle. The hunter, enraged, shoots the dog. He then finds the baby unharmed under the bed, and the dead wolf in a corner.

Lesson 5

Non-Allness — Use of Etc.

Objective: 1

Motivation

Choose either a pen or pencil or similar object — ask students how long it would take to say *all* about the object — then list each statement on the board.
After each statement ask, "Is this *all* there is to say about the object?"
After a while it will become obvious that the class could go on indefinitely and not really say *all* there is to say about the object.

Aim

"Today we will discuss the concept of non-allness. The word does not represent all of the object. Those who act as though they know this do not get the urge to gossip or spread rumors."

(1) "Does anyone know *why* we never say *all* there is to know about anything?" (It is impossible to observe an object from all sides at once but, even if we could, acquaintance would be partial; microscopic, submicroscopic details, chemical changes, etc., would extend the range of observation indefinitely. Therefore, when we make a statement about anything we are not saying *all* there is to say about it and our language should reflect this fact. We abstract some details and omit others. In other words, we don't say all about anything because we don't see all there is to see about anything and two people don't really see the same thing anyway when they look at it together.)

(1) Ask pupils to close their eyes and bury their heads on their desks. Then ask questions about things in the room, for example (write the answers on the board):
   (a) How many windows are there in the room?
   (b) Are they opened or closed?
   (c) What is on my desk?
   (d) What color clothes am I wearing?
   (e) What color eyes do I have have? — *etc.*

Then ask students to open their eyes and look at their answers on the board and compare them with reality. Point out that what we see is even linked to sex — e.g., girls will notice color of eyes more than boys, etc.

Conclusion

If because we cannot see all there is to see and, therefore, we cannot say all there is to say about anything, how can we use language to remind us of this semantic principle? (Discuss the use of et cetera silently or out loud or in writing to remind us that there is more to be said.) Does anyone know the name of the quarterly general semantics magazine? *(Etc.)* Is it appropriate?

Application

(1) In light of our lesson, discuss the statements, "I hate wine," "He's a lousy teacher," "I've already had Eng. 6."
(2) Read a school catalog. Has it said all there is to say about the school or do you still have questions to ask?
(3) If you have a particular fear or worry about some situation that you think you know "all" about, check with the class to see whether there is more to be said or learned.
(4) When has a person completed his education?
(5) Can you tell about any incidents where arguments and misunderstanding resulted because someone forgot that we cannot say *all* about anything?
(6) In view of the fact that we cannot know or say all about anything or someone, is the grading system fair? Why? Why not?

Materials

"The Blind Men and the Elephant," John Godfrey Saxe[1]
"Louis Agassiz, Science Teacher," Nathaniel Shaler

[1]Available in *Communications* by Don Fabun (Beverly Hills, Glencoe Press, 1968).

*How Agassiz Taught Shaler**

When I sat me down before my tin pan, Agassiz brought me a small fish, placing it before me with the rather stern requirement that I should study it, but should on no account talk to any one concerning it, nor read anything relating to fishes, until I had his permission so to do. To my inquiry, "What shall I do?" he said in effect: "Find out what you can without damaging the specimen; when I think that you have done the work I will question you." In the course of an hour I thought I had compassed that fish; it was rather an unsavory object, giving forth the stench of old alcohol, then loathsome to me, though in time I came to like it. Many of the scales were loosened so that they fell off. It appeared to me to be a case for a summary report, which I was anxious to make and get on to the next stage of the business. But Agassiz, though always within call, concerned himself no further with me that day, nor the next, nor for a week. At first, this neglect was distressing; but I saw that it was a game, for he was, as I discerned rather than saw, covertly watching me. So I set my wits to work upon the thing, and in the course of a hundred hours or so thought I had done much—a hundred times as much as seemed possible at the start. I got interested in finding out how the scales went in series, their shape, the form and placement of the teeth, etc. Finally, I felt full of the subject, and probably expressed it in my bearing; as for words about it then, there were none from my master except his cheery "Good morning." At length, on the seventh day, came the question, "Well?" and my disgorge of learning to him as he sat on the edge of my table puffing his cigar. At the end of the hour's telling, he swung off and away, saying: "That is not right."

Moreover, it was clear that he was playing a game with me to find if I were capable of doing hard, continuous work without the support of a teacher, and this stimulated me to labor. I went at the task anew, discarded my first notes, and in another week of ten hours a day labor I had results which astonished me and satisfied him.

*From the *Autobiography of Nathaniel Southgate Shaler*, Houghton Mifflin, 1907, 93-100, with omissions.

Lesson 6

How We Select Details

Objective: 1

In our last lesson we said since we cannot get "all" the details of anything, we select some details and neglect others; therefore, since we cannot say *all* about anything — the word "etc." should be said to ourselves to remind us that there is more.

Motivation

Write on the blackboard this 12-sentence portrait of Bill Smith. Announce all the facts to be true and verifiable:

a) He had white teeth
b) His teeth were uneven
c) His eyes were blue; his hair blond and abundant
d) He rarely looked people straight in the eye
e) He had a clean white shirt
f) His shirt was frayed at the cuffs
g) His speech was courteous
h) He had a high-pitched voice
i) His employer spoke highly of him
j) His landlord said he was slow in paying his rent
k) He liked dogs
l) He disliked children.

Then announce that Bill Smith is a candidate for office. Divide the class into 2 parties, one for running Bill Smith, one opposing him. Ask the class to write a 6 line description and have them placed on the board flanking the 12-line description. Then ask the writers why they chose the facts they did.
This selection of facts was deliberate to fit our purpose but this is what we do every day unconsciously. We see with our minds, not with our eyes — therefore, we cannot see *all* there is to see, we see what our minds tell us to see.

Exercises

(1) Draw a glass on the blackboard which is exactly ½ full. Ask the class what they see. Some will say a glass ½ full. Others will say a glass ½ empty. Explain why this was used as a Peace Corps commercial.

(2) Tell the story about the Yale, Rutgers football game, how close plays were seen differently by Yale and Rutgers students. How in sports we usually disagree with the umpire if he rules against our team.

(3) Point out how we notice cars on the road the same make as the ones our parents own. When we owned a 1963 Oldsmobile F-85 — we noticed them. Now we own a 1969 Volkswagen and notice them. Have students deliberately *look for* a make and year of automobile for one whole week they haven't noticed before and report their findings to the class.

(4) The details a speaker selects tell something about the speaker as well as about what he is describing. What do the details in the following sentences tell us about the speaker? — all referring to the same person:

a) Give it to the old man
b) Give it to the colored fella
c) Give it to that guy
d) Give it to him
e) Give it to John.

Evaluation and Application

Mark Twain once said, "A fool is a man who says I have no prejudices; a wise man is one who knows what his prejudices are." Explain or discuss.

Some people say "seeing is believing." On the basis of this lesson and the previous lesson, can anyone change this verbal map to more accurately fit the territory? Students work in small groups. (Believing is seeing — we see what we believe.)

If we believe that "seeing is believing," we are likely to be thinking in stereotypes — thinking based on stock beliefs that are held as true without being verified. Under scrutiny, most stereotypes are found to be false.

But many people continue to believe stereotypes because they only notice what fits their stereotype; what doesn't fit goes unnoticed. If they are forced to notice what doesn't fit, they write it off as an "exception" to the rule — there are always exceptions. Write a few stereotypes on the chalkboard:

1) Fat people are jolly
2) Redheads are hot-tempered
3) Women are bad drivers, etc.

Divide class into small groups and have them fill in the blanks for the following stereotypes:

Ethnic stereotypes

1) _____ are cheap.
2) _____ are lazy.
3) _____ are alcoholics.
4) _____ are emotional.
5) _____ are dirty.
6) _____ are clannish.
7) _____ are dumb.
8) (Other)

Other stereotypes

1) Teachers are _____.
2) Ministers are _____.
3) Salespeople are _____.
4) Lawyers are _____.
5) Athletes are _____.
6) Girls are _____.
7) Boys are _____.
8) Teenagers are _____.
9) (Other) _____.

Project

Consolidate the results.

In your diary, record one of the above stereotypes which you *wholeheartedly believe*. From now until — (a date two to three weeks later), look only for exceptions to the stereotype selected and write them down, the date when you observed each one, who they are, how they are exceptions, etc. Report back to the class your findings and whether you still believe the stereotype.

Lesson 7

Multi-Causation and Factual and Inferential Statements

Objective: 5

Aim

(1) To understand the concept of multi-causation, i.e., usually there is more than one cause responsible for any event or factor.
(2) To understand that there is a difference between statements that represent what is only inferred. A speaker should be aware of the difference between speaking inferentially and speaking factually.

Motivation

Have students react to the statement:

The cause of her unpopularity was bad breath (or substitute another detail).

Probably students will add other possibilities as to why the girl was unpopular. Elicit the fact that the above statement is an inference, not a fact.
Inference — a statement about the unknown made on the basis of the known.
Fact — a statement which can be observed, verified, proven.
Examples:

I. **Fact** — Johnny is late for school.
Inference — I suppose he overslept.
Judgment — He thinks he can get away with anything.
Reality — Johnny has been hit by a car on the way to school and was killed.

II. **Fact** — There is quite a bit of whispering going on in the class.
Inference — I'll fix them, they need more drill and busy work.
Reality — The class was whispering about a surprise going away present they had bought for her (she was going to have a baby).

III. **Fact** — Out of a class of 38, ten are Black. When homework was checked, 10 students were unprepared. Of the 10, eight were Blacks.
Inference — Blacks are poor students, they don't do homework.
Judgment — I'm not going to expect too much from Black students.
Reality — Have class make up different possibilities illustrating the concept of multi-causation.

IV. **Fact** — Mr.Pete Dickson, our history teacher, failed ten students; 8 were Black.
Inference — Mr. Dickson is anti-Negro.
Judgment — Dickson has to be taught a lesson by the N.A.A.C.P. or Civil Liberties Union.
Reality — Have class make up different possibilities illustrating concept of multi-causation.

Evaluation and Application

Class or homework assignment.
State
a) what is wrong with each of the following statements,
b) what it can lead to,
c) how to correct it: inference stated as fact
unsolvable argument
say "in my opinion" or stick to facts only.

1) Parochial schools are better than public schools.
2) Willie Mays is better than Mickey Mantle.
3) Your mother's cooking made me sick.
4) The reason why so many _____ are unemployed is that they don't like to work.
5) I didn't get the job because I'm _____.

"What's the Point?"

A well-dressed man entered an elevator one morning in June. "What floor?" asked the elevator operator. "F-F-F-Four-t-t-t-teen," stammered the man.
"What do you want with the fourteenth floor?" asked the operator. "There's nothing up there but a radio station."
"I want a j-j-j-job as a d-d-d-disk j-j-j-jockey," answered the man.
Smiling, the operator let the man out on the fourteenth floor. After approximately half an hour, the light on #14 went on. "This ought to be fun," thought the operator.
Sure enough, it was the well-dressed man. "Well?" asked the elevator operator, "Did you get the job?"
"N-N-N-No," replied the man, looking hurt and angry.
"How come?" asked the elevator operator.
"Because I'm b-b-b-bald," replied the man.
Have class discuss this story in light of inferential and factual statements and multi-causation.

Lesson 8

Pause — Summarize — Advise

Objective: 10

(May take several days)

I. This might be as a good a place as any to summarize the principles made in lessons 1-7. Those were new concepts to the students and here might be a good point to review them and see how they are being assimilated.

Some of the concepts you might review are:

Lesson 1 — Nature of general semantics.

Lesson 2 — The importance of general semantics.

Lesson 3 — Words as symbols — the word is *not* the thing, map is *not* the thing, map is *not* the territory.

Lesson 4 — Signal reaction (animal behavior — immature) versus symbol reaction (mature behavior).

Lesson 5 — The concept of non-allness and use of *etc.*

Lesson 6 — How we select details; stereotypes; ask if students are beginning to see other types of automobiles on the roads now — if they are beginning to find exceptions to their stereotypes. *(Hint* — exceptions to stereotypes may be found *right under their noses,* e.g., next door neighbors, classmates, etc., who went unnoticed before.)

Substitute a current commercial

Lesson 7 — Multi-causation and factual and inferential statements. Discuss T.V. commercials here especially. E.g., there are more Puerto Ricans in New York City than in all of San Juan (fact).
More people drink Rheingold than any other beer in New York City (fact).
They want you to infer —
1) Therefore most Puerto Ricans drink Rheingold;
2) If I am a Puerto Rican, I should drink Rheingold.
Show the flaw in this logic.

Another good idea here might be to check upon the progress of the diaries or journals, to have students swap journals or swap stories they have accumulated thus far of actual experiences, news articles, T.V. commercials, etc., they have noticed which illustrate or pertain to previous lessons.

II. At this point in the program it may be wise to pause to remind pupils that if they correct others around them (a habit which is common among those who have acquired a semantic awareness) they are likely to have more misunderstandings than before they acquired this semantic training. Just as people resent those who point out their grammatical errors, so too do they resent those who keep pointing out their semantic errors.
Instead, students should apply these principles of general semantics to their own thinking and actions. By one's own actions, we can influence others. Robert Kennedy insisted, "One man can make a difference."
The best way to correct others is by asking questions in an inquiring tone of voice, not in an argumentative way.

Lesson 9

Learning What is Inside and Outside One's Skin

Objective: 5

Write on blackboard: We must remember that statements often tell us more about what is inside the speaker's skin than what is out there.

Motivation

Hold up an ink blot picture. Say, "Tell us what this is." Different students will give different answers. Press them for a definite answer — "But what is it *really*?" Finally, someone will say, "*Really*, it is a bunch of ink blots." "Exactly! You are the only one who has given an *extensional* answer. The rest of you have done what most people do every day — you have talked about something *inside* your skins as if it were out there."

Write the following on the board:

Extensional — What is outside our skins. What is actually out there.

Intensional — What is inside us; how things should be as far as we are concerned.

Class Exercise

On a piece of paper write exactly what you mean (how you see) the following words:

1) beautiful girl — handsome boy (either one)
2) a long time ago (specific)
3) a beautiful car — be specific (color, make, etc.)

(1) Go over the different answers. The answers we have just heard tell us more of what is inside the skins of those who gave them than what is really out there. Can anyone explain how this is so?

(2) When people talk about or argue over what is beautiful, what takes long, etc., are they talking about something outside their skins? No. Then why is this dangerous? (Because people discuss things which are inside their skins *as if they were outside their skins* and this will lead to misunderstandings and unresolvable conflicts.)

(3) What language habit can remind us that we are talking about something inside our skins instead of something out there? ("To me," "it seems.")

Other Exercises

Analyze these statements as if they all were *intensional* — then rephrase them to make them extensional.

(a) We had an excellent lunch. The speaker was extremely hungry and loves any kind of fish. (Actually, another person said "This is a terrible lunch." He disliked fish and was not really very hungry anyway. "This lunch doesn't taste very good *to me*" would have been an extensional remark.)

(b) *It is very hot in here.* (Actually, the room was heated at 75°F. The speaker had just come from a gym class where he had done extensive running.)

(c) *It is freezing in here.* (The speaker came into the same 75°F room. He had spent two hours in his greenhouse trimming his prize roses. The temperature in the greenhouse was 85°F.) Was the room in question hot or cold? What did the remarks "It is very hot in here" and "It is freezing in here" say about what was out there? (The room.) What did it say about the speakers? What do you think these two speakers will do next after making their statements about the room — argue and/or fight? Why? (Because they are both convinced they are observing something out there fairly, and that they are both right.) How could this have been avoided?

(By speaking extensionally — "This room feels very warm *to me; I feel* very cool in this room. Then by asking questions — "How come?" "I don't know, I felt comfortable before coming here." "Where did you come from?" "The greenhouse." "How hot is it there?" "Oh, almost 85°F — say, what is the temperature in here?" "75°F." "No wonder, I must have gotten used to the 85°F.")

Evaluation — Application

In class or for homework: Write a skit about two people arguing over one of the following statements because both think they are making remarks about something that is out there when actually they are talking about something inside their skins. Then have them *ask* each other *questions* which finally lead them to the understanding that they were actually talking about something *inside* their skins, which leads to a resolution.

1) "She's a great English teacher"/"She stinks."
2) "She's beautiful"/"She's a dog."
3) "(_____), you're a dirty bigot!"
4) An old man — 98 years old: "Didn't he die fairly recently?"
   A young man — 18 years old: "No, he's been dead for quite some time."

Summary

Always say "to me," "it seems," "etc.," either out loud or to yourself to remind you that you must not talk about something which is intensional as if it were extensional.

Lesson 10

Words Have Many Uses

Objective: 8

Motivation

"I am going to give you a simple command. Let us see who can follow it. Put a key on your desks." (After the class does this say, "No, that is not what I mean.") Then have them guess key signature of a song, answers to a test, etc., until they realize that key is used in many ways.

1) Let's list all the uses we can think of for the word "run," "table," "break."
2) Can anyone tell us now why people get into fights over words such as patriotism, truth, liberty, etc.?
3) Let's fill in this table. Here are a few words that used to appear on your report cards when you were in the lower grades. What meanings do you think *Teachers* would have for each word? *Parents*? Students?

	TEACHERS	PARENTS	STUDENTS
Dependability			
Cooperation			
Self-control			

4) Can you expand our list of words?

Examples

Here are some examples of how people get confused because they forget that people have many uses for a word.

(1) When photographers began taking pictures of Anthony Eden (former Prime Minister of England) during a speech, he raised his hand and said "Don't shoot, please." The next day the German radio reported that "An attempt was made on the life of Mr. Eden, English War Minister, yesterday." (*Life*, Feb. 10, 1941, p. 26.)

(2) A girl says "I wish I had a date" and her admirer says "I'll bring you a box tomorrow."

(3) The math teacher says, "Do the problems on page 20 too"; the class does the ones on page 22.

(4) Mother says, "I need some new glasses." Her daughter buys a dozen water glasses for a present (she meant eyeglasses).

Applications

(1) Can you think of any other examples of people forgetting that there are many uses of a word?

(2) Perhaps two or three students may volunteer to dramatize a skit in front of the room which illustrates this sort of misunderstanding.

(3) Comment on the famous statement, "A rose is a rose is a rose."

(4) Most of us were taught that the word "farm" is a noun. That statement shows that the speaker doesn't know very much about the English language. What "is" the word farm?
(a) I own 20 acres of excellent *farm* land. (adj.)
(b) I break my back 10 hours a day *farming* my land. (verb)
(c) I just bought a *farm*. (noun)
What does farm mean? E.g., farm girl (simple), farm team (in baseball), farm land (fertile), etc.

Summary

Most people, when they don't know a word, run to a dictionary. But the meanings are *not* in the words, they are *where?* (IN PEOPLE.)

This is an important basic semantic principle; it is worth writing down and thinking about. Meanings are not in words, they are in people. When someone uses a word you don't know or uses one you thought you knew the meaning of differently, where should you go for the meaning? To the person who uses it — ask him. Remember, words are symbols — they have no meaning in themselves — the meaning is in people — we give words meaning. The class might at this point decide to give a common, much used item (chalk, book, blackboard) a new name (zing, tyg, gink, etc.). For the rest of the term, call it that. If anyone uses the conventional name for it look at him as if you don't understand him. See what happens. What implications do you see for "dirty" words? "Curse" words? "Fighting words" such as mick, spick, etc?

Lesson 11

The Abstraction Ladder

Objective: 1

Motivation

Write the following lists on the board:

A	B
bread	democracy
pencil	love
sweater	hate
land	generosity

(1) Can anyone see a basic similarity in all these words? (They are all nouns.)

(2) Can anyone see a basic difference between the nouns in column A and the words in column B? (Col. A words can be touched, smelled, eaten, etc.; Col. B words refer to ideas, emotions — cannot be felt, etc.)

Column A words are *concrete* nouns (write on board).

Column B words are *abstract* nouns. (Write *abstract* on board.) Elicit definitions of concrete and abstract nouns from students and write on board.

Now that we know the difference between concrete and abstract words, we are going to take several trips up and down the abstraction ladder, so you can see how the process works. Let's start with a tea rose — is this a concrete or abstract word? *(Concrete.)* Now let's go up the abstraction ladder a rung at a time and see how far we can go. Lead the class —

	matter		etc.
	entity ↑		matter ↑
	organic ↑		mass ↑
	growth ↑		organism ↑
	plant ↑	Let's do the same	homo sapiens ↑
going up	flower ↑	with another word	student ↑
the abstraction	rose ↑	(choose a student	male ↑
ladder	tea rose ↑	in the class).	Johnny Smith ↑

Now let's take a trip down the abstraction ladder —

mineral ↓	living thing ↓
metal ↓	insect ↓
iron ↓	fly ↓
hammerhead ↓	horse fly on the window pane ↓
etc.	etc.

When we went up the abstraction ladder we started with tea rose and Johnny Smith. *Now* let's start with the same words but go *down* the ladder.

Tea Rose

a dead tea rose
a dead tea rose, U.S.A.
a dead tea rose in a park, U.S.A.
a dead tea rose in a St. Paul park, U.S.A.
a dead tea rose in a hothouse in a St. Paul park, U.S.A.
a dead tea rose in the Como Park hothouse, St. Paul, Minnesota, U.S.A.

A Student

Johnny Smith is a student
Johnny Smith is a student, U.S.A.
Johnny Smith is a Minnesota student, U.S.A.
Johnny Smith is a high school student, St. Paul, Minnesota, U.S.A.
Johnny Smith attends ———— High School, St. Paul, Minnesota, U.S.A.
Johnny Smith is in English A, ———— High School, St. Paul, Minnesota, U.S.A.

Point out that each time you go down the abstraction ladder (as in the case of Johnny Smith) you eliminate many different Johnny Smiths. There may be 10 million Johnny Smiths, but only five million in the U.S.A., only 1,000 in Minnesota, only five who go to ———— High School in St. Paul, only two in English A, and only one who sits in row 2 seat 2 of English A.

Conclusion

1) What happens as we go *up* the ladder of abstraction? (We get further and further away from the specific object.)
2) What happens as we go *down* the ladder of abstraction? (We get closer and closer to the specific object.)

It is essential that we keep the abstraction ladder in mind if we are to understand the next several very important lessons. It is important to remember that these ladders are extremely *tall*. When most of us talk, we forget how tall these ladders are and so when we say Johnny Smith, we think there is only one, that we have reached the bottom of the ladder. We have just seen that this is not so.

Lesson 12A

The Value of Indexing

Objective: 4

Note to the Teacher

This may be the most vital lesson of the group. Hayakawa suggests that if students can't remember all they have learned, they should just try to remember that cow_1 is not cow_2 is not cow_3 . . . because the most important principles of general semantics are couched in this principle. Therefore, at least three days should be used (maybe more) in discussing, testing, and finding examples of this principle in everyday life.

Motivation

Write this theory on the board:

"No two of anything have ever been found identical, that is, alike in *all* respects."

Can anyone find an example to contradict this theory? (Allow pupils to talk about identical twins, manufactured products, etc. It is important to let the pupils themselves come to see differences in these things. Perhaps you can stimulate this process by a wistful smile after each suggestion is made, but allow others to disprove the fact that complete identity is possible. Never give a verdict; at best, leave the discussion open indefinitely. Possibly months later someone will come up with something "identical" to something else, only to be told of differences by other class members. This discussion can easily take one or more periods. After the class sees how even "alike" things are different, then write the words "boys" and then "girls" on the board. Ask the class for definitions. Then select 5 boys and 5 girls (as different from each other as possible — tall, short, fat, slim, black, white, etc.). Have them stand in front of the room. Then ask: "Are we agreed that this group can be called boys? This group girls? Now let's say some things about 'boys' and 'girls' that are often said and see if they are true; e.g.:

1) Boys love to tinker around with cars, sports, etc.
2) Boys are only after one thing
3) Girls are smarter than boys
4) Boys are stronger than girls
5) Boys know nothing about cooking, etc., etc."

In each case have a member of the group deny the generalization about his group.

a) What do we emphasize when we abstract (e.g., when we put Joe in the boy group and not in the girl group)? (Likenesses.)
b) But once we have the group, what do we ignore about the individual members of the group? (Differences.)

"Thank you. Please take your seats.

"Here is a list of statements. What do you think of them?

(a) Teenage drivers are reckless and are the cause of the high accident rate
(b) Teenagers are lazy and irresponsible
(c) Teenagers don't like to work — they're spoiled
(d) All teenagers think about is clothes, music, cars, and sex."

(Be alert for such statements such as "Adults are really dangerous drivers," etc. When someone says this, stop to check the validity of *it*.)

(c) In math we don't have this problem. When a mathematician wishes to remind you and himself that x is a variable term, that is to say, that x can be used to represent any number whatever, he uses subscripts: x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, etc. Words like *house* and *teenager* are also variable terms. To remind of us this we too must use subscripts: $house_1$, $house_2$, $house_3$ – $teenager_1$, $teenager_2$, $teenager_3$. General semantics copies the techniques of science to facilitate communication. WE MUST USE THE INDEX TO REMIND OURSELVES OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GROUPS. Cow_1 is not Cow_2 is not Cow_3, etc. (Write on board.)

Exercises

Use the concept of *indexing* to discuss the following statements:

(1) New Yorkers are unfriendly
(2) Europeans have a greater appreciation for art than do Americans
(3) Frenchmen have mustaches
(4) Teachers are grouchy.

HAVE CLASS ADD TO LIST

(5) Clip out newspaper articles, bring in examples of generalizations from books, magazines, conversations. Analyze how they make the mistake of "allness."
(6) Analyze T.V. commercials for generalizations; e.g., "Blondes have more fun."
(7) Each country defines its own government as a democracy — Egypt, U.S.A., U.S.S.R., Union of South Africa. If four students from each country were to have a discussion about democracy, would they be talking about the same thing? What could they do to correct this problem?

Write on Board

Three Ways to Evaluate Generalizations

1) What dangers are there in taking this statement as the truth?
2) What exceptions are there to the statement? (There always are.)
3) Ask yourself *why* the person who made the statement feels the way he does. What are his special interests, shortcomings, prejudices?

Lesson 12B

Stereotypes and Indexing

Objective: 4

Motivation

We are responsible for the casting of a new movie. The roles still open are of a college professor, salesman, and gangster. Ask the class how each would be represented in appearance, mannerisms, gestures, speech, etc. Ask the class to examine the lists on the board and determine the source of this information. Develop the concept of the stereotype (a rubber-stamp copy).

1) What is the stereotype of the American Indian on T.V., movies?
2) What is the stereotype of the "typical" American?
3) In Lesson #6, *How We Select Details*, we listed certain ethnic (and other) stereotypes:

Ethnic stereotypes

1) _____ are cheap.
2) _____ are lazy.
3) _____ are alcoholics.
4) _____ are emotional.
5) _____ are dirty.
6) _____ are clannish.
7) _____ are dumb.
8) (Other)

Other stereotypes

1) Teachers are _____.
2) Ministers are _____.
3) Salespeople are _____.
4) Lawyers are _____.
5) Athletes are _____.
6) Girls are _____.
7) Boys are _____.
8) Teenagers are _____.
9) (Other)

You were supposed to look for exceptions to those stereotypes and record them in your diaries. What are some of your findings thus far? Read pp. 39-41, *Communications* (booklet) by Don Fabun, Glencoe Press*: "The Trouble With Is, Is, Is."

4) What is the sterotype of the foreigner in American Movies? Americans in foreign movies?
5) What is the stereotype of our enemies in American T.V. and films? E.g.
   a) The Germans in "Hogan's Heroes"
   b) The Russians in "Mission Impossible"
   c) The Chinese and/or Japanese
   d) The North Vietnamese
   e) Others?
6) In order to discourage indexing (the awareness that Cow_1 is not Cow_2) the U.S. Army usually makes up names for the enemy of the particular year which serves the purpose of lumping all of them into an ugly category, e.g.:
   Jerries, Huns, Krauts = Germans
   Reds, Commies = Russians
   Japs = Japanese
   Cong, Gooks = Vietnamese (usually from the North)
   V.C. (sounds like V.D. — disease)
   Etc. Have students add to the list.
7) What effect would the habit of indexing have on stereotyped thinking? If everyone practiced indexing, how would it affect a war already in progress (would make it more difficult to shoot at an *individual*)? How would it affect "cold" wars?

*See page 161.

Applications-Exercises

(1) Ethnic jokes rely on one's understanding of ethnic stereotypes. They are not very funny to a person who, because he is a member of that group or for some other reason, has applied the principle of indexing and has found the stereotype to be false. Example: *What's an Italian status symbol?* Answer — *White walls on his push cart.* Stereotype — Italians are mainly a group of poor peddlers. Apply the principle of indexing to this statement and get ready to be surprised. List at least three other ethnic jokes. Then list the stereotype each recalls. Then analyze each by indexing.

(2) React to the following statements: *Things equal to the same things are equal to each other* (geometric axiom); *All men are created equal* (Declaration of Independence).

(3) What is your stereotype of the "ideal" husband or wife, or home? What will happen if the real thing doesn't turn out to fit the stereotype? Better start indexing *now*

(4) Because so *few* of us are trained to notice differences (most of us notice only similarities), some of us become experts in detecting differences and are paid well for it. Can you list some? (Wine-tea tasters, piano tuners, proof readers, art dealers, etc.)

(5) What are parents and teachers *not* doing when they compare you with your brothers and sisters?

(6) See pp. 223-229, *Language in Thought and Action*, by S. I. Hayakawa.

(7) The next time you catch yourself being surprised at an Italian who hates spaghetti, re-read your notes!

Conclusion

Remember, the danger in stereotyped thinking is that the exception to the stereotype is either not noticed or written off as a mere "exception." Indexing makes people *exception-hunters*. Become an exception hunter *if you dare* because it will change your whole life!

Lesson 13

Dating — A Device Used to Acknowledge a World in Process

Objective: 4

Motivation

"Not one person in this class is the same person, *literally*, that he was seven years ago! Can anyone tell us why this is so?" (Reject the obvious answers which deal with personality change or physical change — e.g., growth — by saying, "No, I mean *literally*." After the class is sufficiently exasperated, explain to them how each cell in their body dies and a new one takes its place — bone cells, skin, blood, etc. Therefore, there is not one cell alive in their entire bodies today which was there seven years ago. Literally, they are completely different people!)

Implications

Our language habits imply that we live in a static world where there is enduring matter; our speech does not correspond to the moving, changing world about us. Ask a student to talk about the atom theory — e.g., that matter is composed of atoms, electrons, etc; that matter is in constant change with electrons bouncing off and adding on to matter at all times, etc. We can't see this process with the naked eye but it is happening all the time.

(1) Sometimes we do become aware of change. Let's list some of these *observable* changes within our universe.
   (a) growing things (especially when they are not seen for a long time)
   (b) changing colors (leaves, fading fabric, etc.)
   (c) rusting
   (d) aging
   (e) fashions, etc.

(2) Over 2,000 years ago Heraclitus said, "You can't walk through the same stream twice." What do you think he meant by this?

(3) How will a table or chair change if left untouched long enough?

(4) How is the U.S. of 1950 different from the U.S. of 1975?

(5) Challenge the class to name something that does not change. Allow the students to continue discussing the examples (no one can say all about anything) until they are satisfied that there is change and a need to recognize change.

(6) We have just seen how everything changes. But when we speak, we *talk about* things as if they were *constants*, e.g.: My grandparents, Catholicism, my job, my parents, patriotism, etc. If things constantly change what should happen to our reactions to them? (They should change with them.)

(7) There is a device that scientists use to speak accurately about a changing world. It has become another technique in general semantics to make sure that our maps fit the territory. Does anyone know what it is? (Dating.) Grandparents$_{1950}$ are not grandparents$_{1970}$, Catholicism$_{1950}$ is not Catholicism$_{1975}$, my parents$_{1975}$, my parents$_{1991}$, patriotism$_{1932}$, patriotism$_{1975}$, etc.

How can dating make a difference in the behavior and attitudes of people in the following instances?

(a) Tom took a fountain pen when he was in the fifth grade. Now Tom is in the 8th grade. Tom is suspected whenever anything is missing, although there is no evidence he has ever taken anything else.

(b) A person holds a grudge because of an insult which took place a month ago.

(c) A high school student who says, "I'm a poor student; I was left back in the 5th grade."

(d) A person who says ever since I was little and that — (a member of a minority group) abused my father, I hated those — (members of that minority group).

Hand out copies of Hitler quote (included at the end of this lesson). "Read this and write in answers to questions on bottom. At end of period you'll be given the answers."

Conclusion

What language habit should we use to constantly remind us that the world is in constant process, that things change? Why is it important to do this?

Application — At home or in class

(1) Clip out articles from newspapers, magazines, etc., where it is obvious that dating could have made a difference.

(2) Examine the way your parents treat you. What is the date for each? e.g. Mom-(Me_{1950}), Dad-(Me_{1960}), Brother-(Me_{1975}).

(3) Some people adjust to handicaps and others do not. Account for this in terms of dating (some people cannot date; if it were situation 1975 they react to situation 1961).

(4) What is a *semantic* definition of a frustrated person? (One who misdates his actions – e.g., $action_3$ accompanies $situation_4$).

(5) What should we remember from this lesson the next time we feel depressed?

(6) I.Q. scores used to be put on the record cards of each student a few years ago when the student was in elementary school. This practice was recently stopped by the Board of Education in New York City. Student records cards do *not* have any I.Q. scores on them. Why? (I. Q. scores change — affected by vocabulary, etc.)

(7) Can you think of any food you ever disliked earlier but now like very much? The next time you catch yourself saying, "I don't like _____," ask yourself, "What am I *not* doing?" (Dating) Can you think of any people you once disliked but now like?

lobster	Billy	"A" students	Rich people
olives	Mary	"F" students	Poor people
milk	Joe	Teachers	Others
turkey	Sally	Lawyers	
spinach	George	Salespeople	

Remember that things change, including you and me.

(8) In the fable "The Boy Who Cried Wolf," the point centers around the fault of the boy and his just punishment. Reanalyze the story to apply the fault to the adults in the story; apply the principle of dating: (Wolf cry/Mon. is not Wolf cry/Tues. is not Wolf cry/Wed., etc.)

The Hitler Quotation

"The streets of our country are in turmoil. The universities are filled with students rebelling and rioting. Communists are seeking to destroy our country. Russia is threatening us with her might and the republic is in danger, from within and without.

"We need Law and Order. Yes, without law and order our nation cannot survive. Elect us and we shall restore law and order."

1. Who said this? (Adolf Hitler.)
2. Where was it said? (Hamburg, Germany.)
3. When was it said? (1932.)
4. What does that statemen tell us about doting? ($Patriotism_{1932}$ is not $patriotism_{1975}$.)

Lesson 14

We Live in an Either-Or World

Objective: 3

Motivation

A person who thinks he is liberal and unbiased usually has a saying about the sides of arguments. Can anyone repeat it? "I always say, there are *two* sides to every argument."

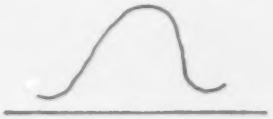
Does anyone disagree with this statement? This statement is a typical two-value-oriented statement. We speak as if there were only one or two ways of looking at persons and things. For example, people are called good or bad, rich or poor, smart or dumb, kind or mean, dirty or clean, etc. Let's make a list of typical either-or comparisons. Write on board student suggestions such as:

Either	*Or*
up	down
succeed	fail
happy	sad
popular	unpopular
beautiful	ugly
useful	useless
clumsy	graceful
noisy	quiet
cold	hot
honest	dishonest, etc.

Experiments — Exercises

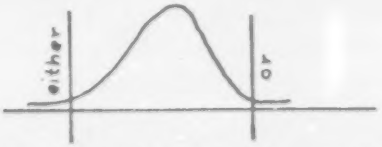
Select a pair from the board, e.g., hot and cold. How would a scientist deal with this? (He would use a thermometer and measure *all* the degrees between the 2 extremes.) Continue this process (e.g., scales used to measure degrees between heavy and light, speedometer measures fast and slow, etc.).

Explain the bell-curve of normal distribution to the students:



Go through a few examples from everyday life and apply it to the curve — e.g., days above and below 100°F., I.Q., height, weight, etc. — until they realize that "normal" distribution lumps most people in the *middle*.

Now let's look at our list. Let's plot where our either-or comparisons are on the graph. Do this until it is obvious that the either-or comparisons are on the extreme ends of the graph.



(1) What, then do we do when we think and talk in terms of a two-valued orientation? (We talk about a small area of reality — two smallest points.)

(2) What don't we do when we talk and think in terms of a two-valued orientation? (Take into account that the *bulk* of reality lies in between these two points — we ignore *most* of what is out there if we are two-valued orientated.)

Applications

Comment on the following:

(1) A student misses the honor roll by two points; he says "I've failed"

(2) A child feels unpopular because not everyone likes him
(3) The pianist who won't perform because she might make mistakes
(4) Police in Chicago during the Democratic convention beating demonstrators, because "that is the *only* way we could make them behave"
(5) "Are you with me or against me?"
(6) "I call policemen 'pigs' and make their lives difficult whenever I can, because that is the *only* way to make them see I too am a man"
(7) Do you like classical music or modern music?
(8) "*America* — Love it or leave it ! ! !"
(9) "Love me or leave me" (song)
(10) Vote at 18 or 21. (What happened to 19 and 20?) . . .

Commercials — Many commercials try to get you to think in terms of a two-valued orientation so that you forget about other alternatives.

(a) "What do you want? Good grammar or good taste?" Winston cigarettes. (Are both impossible? What about 10 things?) Can you think of others?

Hang-ups

Socialism (Communism) or Capitalism

a) What is social security? (Socialism.)
b) What is welfare? (Socialism, Communism.)
c) Factory workers in U.S.S.R. are being paid commissions. What is that? (Capitalism.)
d) What would the best of all possible governments be? (A combination of all of these?)

Modern Medicine Creates Problems

A person was either white or black until a white man was given a black man's heart. He lived for a time but when he died in South Africa, a controversy began. Do we bury him in a white cemetery or a black cemetery? (Is this humorous or sad? Why not both? And also pathetic, senseless, etc., etc.)
Another problem transplants brought up — a person used to be either dead or alive. But now there is a question — physically, a person is not either dead or alive.
Is general semantics the answer to all the problems and misunderstandings in the world or is it a meaningless waste of time?

Conclusion

What question should we ask a person who boasts, "I always look at both sides of every argument"? (Why just *two* sides?)
Remember: A closed-minded person tends to be two-valued in his thinking. He tends to accept the speaker and his statement or reject the speaker and his statement. The open-minded person may in addition also accept the speaker but reject his statement, or reject the speaker and accept his statement.

Follow-up

(1) Discuss one criterion of good fiction (novel, play, T.V., drama) – that heroes are not all good or all bad. (Ask for examples.)
(2) The judicial system recognizes this semantic principle even in the case of innocent or guilty. A defendant may be found *innocent* of murder because of the following reasons:
   a) didn't do it
   b) insanity or mental incompetence
   c) we can't prove it
   d) justifiable homicide.

A defendant may be found guilty for the following reasons:
   a) first degree (premeditated)
   b) felony murder (while committing a lesser crime)
   c) second degree (unpremeditated "crime of passion")
   d) manslaughter, 1st degree
   e) manslaughter, 2nd degree.

(3) There is much good in the worst of us and much bad in the best of us.

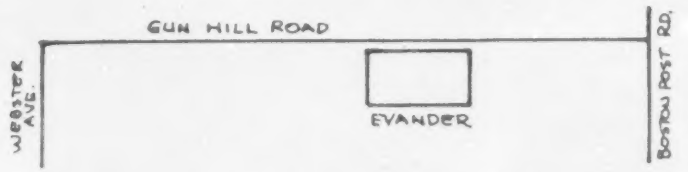
Lesson 15

Words are Like Maps

Objectives: 4 and 5

Motivation

Let's take some actual territory in which streets appear in the following order: Webster Avenue, Gun Hill Road, Evander, Boston Post Road. If we were to build a map of this territory it would look like this.



If we put Boston Post Road before Webster Avenue, put Webster Avenue where Boston Post Road was and changed the location of Evander on our map, we would have this:

We would say that the map was incorrect or that the map has a different structure from the territory. What would happen if we tried to use such a map? Words are like maps. When there is misunderstanding, conflict, a failure to communicate, our verbal maps do not fit the territory. (What's out there.)

Exercises

Let's check some of our maps to see whether they are false or whether we are reading them incorrectly.

(1) In some clubs or hotels there is no floor marked 13. The elevator goes from 12 to 14 because some guests are superstitious. (Have students react to this. Is this map accurate?)

(2) Junior high school graduates worry during the summer before they enter high school because of the maps high school students give them of the territory. How accurate was your map?

(3) If you walk up to the stairs of a certain theater you will see the following signs before the entrances of two rooms: "Powder Room for Ladies" (by entrance to one room), "Smoking Room for Gentlemen" (by the entrance to another room). (How accurate are these maps?)

(4) The sign on the door of the office of the person who makes out your programs reads "Guidance Counselor." How accurate is this map?

(5) The Horatio Alger formula — often called the "American Dream" — that anyone who is clean, honest, and hard-working can become president.

(6) "Land where our fathers died" — *Star Spangled Banner;* "The land of the free, the home of the brave" — *Star Spangled Banner;* "With liberty and justice for all" — *Pledge of Allegiance;* "All men are created equal" — *Declaration of Independence.*

(7) The crusades were holy wars fought in the name of Christianity. (They were fought to conquer territory from the "Heathens." Christ advocated turning the other cheek.)

(8) You can't teach an old dog new tricks. (Dog_1 is not dog_2.)

(9) Secretary of Defense. (Isn't Secretary of War more accurate?) Etc.
Have students make their own lists.

Conclusion

Either read the words or play the record, "Games People Play" by Joe South. What is Joe South saying? (Among other things, our maps do not fit the territories.)

We have discussed some techniques which make our maps fit the territories they are supposed to represent. What are they?

Index — $object_1$ is not $object_2$

Etc. — there's always more to be said

Date — everything changes. $School_{1975}$ is not $School_{1981}$

Question — Does the word fit the fact?
What *does* he mean?

Delay — Evaluate before you act.

Lesson 16

Is of Identity

Objectives: 1 and 2

Motivation

Place the following chart on the blackboard:

	True	*False*	*Comment*
1. Snowballing is fun			
2. Exercise is good for you			
3. Homework is useless			
4. Pets are fun			
5. Poetry is boring			

Count the numbers of true and false responses for each statement. Allow arguments to develop, then proceed to the lesson. Let's fix the terms in some of those sentences from the board:

Snowballing is fun

What kind? Packed with ice? Dozens of snowballs? Light fluffy snow? Fun for whom? Child who is injured? Child chased by gang? Child playing with friend?

Exercise is good for you.

What kind? Scrubbing the basement? Running upstairs? An outdoor game? Good when? After a big meal? After an operation? After school? For a heart patient?

The word in each of the statements we argued about a while ago that caused the arguments is the word *is* and all forms of the word *to be*. We say "your shirt *is* green," "the apple *is* red," so often that our maps become the territories they are supposed to represent. Green and red are not the same as "shirt" and "apple." Actually, if we bake the apple it "is" no longer red — it "is" brown. If we shine a colored light on the "green" shirt it then "is" whatever color we shine on it. Explain color in terms of ROYGBIV (physics), e.g., that color is a function of size of wave length.

(A) How would a physicist talk about the shirt? The apple? (This object absorbs all wave lengths and reflects the first on the color spectrum. It therefore appears red to me.) Explain that the words "appears ," "seems" and "to me" are typical of the same language spoken by scientists.

(B) What difference would using "seems," "appears," and "to me" make in the 5 comments on the board? (People would be less likely to argue with you over them and you would be less likely to argue in their defense.)

Conclusion

When we say something *is* something else, we tend to forget that that is impossible — that a word is a symbol for something but it is not the thing itself.

Application

We have discussed how "is" seems to be a trap in the English language which leads us to confuse the maps with the territory. Spanish is a language which, to a great extent, doesn't have this trap. In Spanish we say *"Como se llama?"* "How are you called?" (instead of What *is* your name). *"Me llamo Juan* — I call myself John" (instead of My name *is* John). In Spanish if one wants to say something but doesn't know how to say it, he doesn't say "What *is* shoe?" He says, *"Como se dice zapato?* How do you say shoe?" In Spanish one says *"Hace color"* (It makes warm — realizing weather is a process). In English we say, "It *is* warm" (ignoring the process as if warmness were a thing that was out there). See the difference?

Making use of our who, what, when, and where indexes, and substituting "seems," "appears," for *is*, and adding "to me," make these statements more rational and less argument-provoking.

1) Volkswagens are dangerous cars.
2) War protesters are unpatriotic.
3) She is a tramp.
4) _____ was a great movie.
5) Evander is a good school.
6) Girl watching is fun.
7) That's a beautiful color.
8) Her house was beautiful.
9) The car was expensive.
10) Her dress was blue. (Etc. Have the class make up their own.)

Lesson 17

Question Asking

Objective: 11

Motivation

"Which do *you* think *really* came first — the chicken or the egg?" (Allow time for arguments.) "This is an extreme example of a contradictory statement that can be argued either way without reaching any valid result. Can anyone suggest similar questions?" Write on board. What should we call these questions? (Nonsensical, useless, unanswerable.) What is the first step that a scientist takes toward the solution of a laboratory problem? (Stating the problem in such a way as to suggest a fruitful attack on it.)
Why would a scientist not concern himself with the above questions (on the board)? (Because they are stated in such a way that finding a solution is impossible.)

Transition

We mentioned many times that general semantics attempts to use the principles of science to make our maps more accurately fit the territory. It stands to reason, then, that a student of general semantics should want to learn *how to ask questions*, since much misunderstanding and worry results from trying to answer questions that cannot be answered.

Exercises

Turn each of the following useless (unanswerable) questions into a useful one (answerable one).

1) Do I dare go home with this poor report card?	How can I improve my grades?
2) Why are people so unkind?	Why didn't you wait for me?
3) Why did this have to happen to me?	How can I change this situation?
4) Will you always be my best friend?	What would you enjoy doing?
5) Why do I have to go to school?	What will be fun today in school?
6) Do students know as much as students did 25 years ago?	How can I improve my teaching?

(Etc.)

Make a long list of such questions and the changes you would suggest. Notice when you change the question, it enables you to stop going around in circles. Now you can either answer your question or act on it.

A) What effect does asking unanswerable questions have on the person who asks them?

B) What effect would it have on the person who attempts to answer? (Unanswerable questions cause people to worry and become anxious.)

Conclusion

When you run into a problem that seems insoluble and causes you much worry what should you do? (Examine the kinds of questions you are asking yourself. Probably they are being asked in a way in which they are unanswerable. Rephrase them in such a way that they can be answered.)

Application

Analyze the two sets of questions on the board.

Useless	*Answerable*
1) What do they see in modern art?	When can I go to the museum to see movies on modern art?
2) Why does she dress so funny?	What kind thing can I do to make her forget her poor clothes?
3) Why do I have to listen to such an old bore?	How can I tactfully change the subject?
4) Who wants to study poetry?	I like animals — where can I find poems about horses?
5) Why can't I look like a movie star?.	What could I do to improve my appearance?

How do these two lists differ? Make your own list of questions you have asked yourself or questions others have asked which you now consider useless. How would you rephrase them?

Lesson 18

Summary

Objective: 1

This lesson should take a number of days.

I. There are several methods of reviewing a course or unit. The key concepts which should be reviewed are: general semantics (definition and importance), the map is not the territory, symbol vs. signal reactions, non-allness, how we select details, multi-causation, factual and inferentional statements, intensional and extensional language, the many uses of a word, the abstraction ladder, the value of indexing, stereotypes, the value of dating, two-valued orientation vs. multi-valued orientation, the nature of words as symbols, "is" of identity, the art of questioning, etc. (Perhaps a mimeographed sheet of *Language in Thought and Action** by S. I. Hayakawa, pp. 314-316, will be of help.)

II. After the concepts have been reviewed, the students should be given a chance to put them into practice. Perhaps they should be given a list of proverbs and then asked to apply the principles of general semantics to them, e.g.:

a) You can't teach an old dog new tricks
b) A stitch in time saves nine
c) Don't put all your eggs in one basket
d) The sweetest grapes hang highest
e) Strike while the iron is hot
f) Don't cry over spilt milk
g) Blood is thicker than water
h) Too many cooks spoil the broth.
(Have pupils add to the list.)

Pupils may be asked to change the following intensional statements to factual extensional ones — e.g., what do these comments say about the speaker rather than what's out there?

1) Oysters taste good (to my taste buds).
2) Jim Jones is the best for mayor. (He will give me a job.)
3) He's the same old Henry. (I cannot determine any changes in him now from the last time I saw him.)
4) He's a Plutonian. (He acts the way I expect all Plutonians to act.)
5) It's a fine day! (I closed my business deal showing a profit for my firm.)
6) You can't expect anything but the worst from Plutonians.
(I was taught to disregard their good points.)
7) Cadillacs are no better than Volkswagens. (I am envious and resentful of wealthy persons.)
8) Man has 24 pairs of chromosomes. (I haven't read a text book in this subject since 1956 when this "fact" was changed.)
9) Girl A is more beautiful than Girl B. (Girl A comes closer to the picture of beauty that I have inside my skin than Girl B — statement shows prejudices of the speaker.)
10) When you're really thirsty, the best thing is a glass of water. (Only water satisfies me when I am thirsty — shows cultural bias. If he were French, wine might be "the only thing.")

III. Finally, students should be given a chance to talk about their experiences with language since they began to examine it closely. Here journals should be discussed, exchanged, etc. The necessity for application should be emphasized here.

*Hayakawa, S. I., *Language in Thought and Action* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1966.)

IV. Perhaps composition work could be incorporated with final evaluation. Catherine Minteer suggests the following questions for an essay-type summary:

(1) Repeat some of the ideas of general semantics that made the deepest impression on you.

(2) Tell about a misunderstanding you read about in a book or newspaper that was like one we studied about in this course. Has this study influenced your reading of books or newspapers?

(3) Tell about a failure to date, or failure to see differences in a real-life situation.

(4) Have you tried to teach anyone any of these lessons? What was your experience?

(5) Do you think you are slower to anger and have fewer quarrels since you have studied these lessons?

(6) Have you been able to detect someone stating an opinion as if it were a fact? Tell about it.

(7) Do you think you have learned to listen to people more carefully? Are you more willing to ask questions if you don't understand?

(8) Do you do more reciting in class or recite more easily because of this study?

(9) Has this study changed your attitude toward any of your school subjects? Describe the changes.

(10) Has this study changed your attitude toward any persons? Have you looked for differences in people?

Appendix A

Research on the Effect of General Semantics Study on the Quality of Student Writing, Creativity, Critical Thinking, and Prejudice

Irwin Berger, "Improving Composition Through Emphasis on Semantics and Critical Thinking," Ph.D. dissertation, Yeshiva University, 1965.

In his study, 110 high school seniors were taught composition with an emphasis on general semantics and an omission of formal grammar, and 108 students were taught composition conventionally with an emphasis on grammar, usage, and sentence structure. After sixteen weeks of instruction, each pupil wrote an essay as if for the New York Regents Examination. Teacher judges rated the papers using Regents standards. Berger found a difference in ratings between the honor control groups and the honor experimental groups, with the experimental groups scoring higher.

S. L. True, "A Study of the Relation of General Semantics and Creativity," Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1964.

In another study, S. L. True analyzes the relationship between general semantics and creativity. The study investigated the hypothesis that general semantics would result in superior performance on tests of creative ability in a selected sample of sixth grade children. After half-hour lessons on *Words and What They Do to You*, the Minnesota tests of creative thinking were administered to the experimental and control groups to evaluate the difference between groups. It was found that the lessons in general semantics had a beneficial effect on the development of ideational fluency and spontaneous flexibility for sixth grade students.

Howard F. Livingston, "The Effect of Instruction in General Semantics on the Critical Reading Ability of 10th Grade Students," Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1964.

Livingston concerned himself with the critical reading ability of tenth grade students as a result of instruction in selected principles of general semantics. He found a difference in gains of the experimental group over the control group significant at the .01 level when tested by the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal.

Raymond Arlo, "The Relative Effectiveness of Inductive and Expository Teaching Principles of General Semantics Upon the Critical Reading Ability of 9th Grade Students," Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1969.

Here, Arlo is not only interested in whether learning selected principles of general semantics will result in increased critical reading ability, he is interested in the method of teaching general semantics that will yield the best results. Arlo found that the inductive method of teaching general semantics yielded better results than the expository method.

J. A. Black, "The Effect of Instruction in General Semantics on Ethnic Prejudice as Expressed in Measurements of Social Distance, Ethnocentrism and Authoritarianism," Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1971.

In this study each of four teachers had three classes: one an anti-prejudice course, one a regular English course, and one a General Semantics course. Each course ran for six weeks at Evander Child High School in the Bronx, utilizing students in their eleventh year of school. Pretests and post-tests were given on Social Distance, Ethnocentrism, and Authoritarianism. The mean scores for the General Semantics classes decreased significantly on the post-tests, while the mean scores for the other two courses increased on the post-tests.

Appendix B

RESEARCH REPORT: Language Arts in Early Childhood Education*

The Relationship Between Handwriting and Other Areas

Wedell and Horne (1969) investigated the relationship between children's scores on the Bender Gestalt Test and their subsequent performance on handwriting, spelling and pencil copying tests. Their findings suggested the subsequent performance scores of the group of children labelled as high scoring on the Bender Gestalt were significantly better statistically than the subsequent performance scores of the group of children labelled as low scoring on the Bender Gestalt on all three criterion measures. Their findings suggest a positive relationship exists between a young child's Bender Gestalt score and his subsequent performance in pencil copying, spelling, and handwriting tasks.

Spelling

Last, but certainly equally as significant, is the research in the spelling area. Four of the five available studies investigated children's spelling achievement after instruction in various programs, while the remaining study investigated the relationship between Black English and spelling ability.

Training Programs Designed to Enhance Children's Spelling Ability

Cramer (1970) investigated the facility with which two groups of first grade children, one group experiencing a basal reader program and the second group experiencing the Language Experience Approach to reading program, spelled phonologically regular and irregular words. The results indicated (1) the LEA children spelled both regular and irregular words significantly better than the basal reader children; (2) the LEA children received higher spelling scores in written composition than the basal reader children; and (3) no significant difference in the facility with which the LEA children spelled regular and irregular words, while the basal reader children spelled regular words significantly better than irregular words.

A study by Callaway, McDaniel, and Mason (1972) was the most extensive comparative analysis of the effect of various methods of instruction on children's spelling performance. They compared the relative effects of five methods of teaching on 789 first grade children's spelling performance. Their results indicated the method which most positively affected children's spelling performance was the method in which children were encouraged to write stories which related to the stories in their basal reader series. Direct teaching of spelling words which were not necessarily met in reading resulted in significantly lower scores in spelling. The researchers concluded *that teaching spelling for its own sake without relationship to other writen language is a POOR practice.*

The Hayes and Wuest (1969) and the Shapiro and Willford (1969) studies both involved the use of the Initial Teaching Alphabet with children. Hayes and Wuest investigated the comparative effect of I/T/A, Lippincott, *Phonics and Word Power,* and Scott Foresman upon children's spelling abilities. The results indicated: (1) in April of grade 1, the spelling test result favored I/T/A, Lippincott, and *Phonics and Word Power* over Scott Foresman; (2) in May and January of grade 2, the spelling test results favored I/T/A and Lippincott over Scott Foresman; (3) in January of grade 3, I/T/A and Lippincott spelling test scores were significantly better than the scores for *Phonics and Word Power;* and (4) in June of grade 3, the results favored Lippincott over both Scott Foresman and *Phonics and Word Power.* The most consistent superior spelling ability was displayed by children experiencing reading instruction by the I/T/A or Lippincott series.

Shapiro and Willford were interested in determining the relative reading and spelling achievement of two I/T/A groups of children, one of which began its formal reading program in kindergarten and one of which began its formal reading program in grade 1. Only the spelling results will be reported. After five months in the first grade, the kindergarten group achieved a significantly higher level than the first grade group in spelling. At the end of the first and second grade, the kindergarten group still performed better than the first grade group on the spelling measures. Early instruction in I/T/A formal reading instruction seemed to positively affect the children's spelling performance.

Spelling Ability and Other Areas

Kligman, Cronnell, and Verna (1972) were interested in determining the effect of being a speaker of Black English on children's spelling performance. They were particularly concerned with the type of spelling errors made by Black English speaking children. To examine children's spelling ability, they constructed a test which included three examples of each of 43 pronunciation features derived from the descriptions of Black English phonology. An analysis of the errors made by the Black English speaking children suggested the dialect pronunciation did have a significant relationship with the number and type of spelling errors made.

* Excerpted from the *Elementary English Journal,* February, 1974, pp. 306-309

Summary of Research in the Language Arts in Early Childhood Education

Based upon the findings of the research since 1938, the following tentative conclusions can be drawn:

Factors Affecting Young Children's Performance in the Language Arts

1. The older the child, the better his performance on listening tasks (Klinzing, 1972; Gowie and Powers, 1972; Hynes, 1971) and the greater his syntactic maturity and vocabulary diversity (Fox, 1972).
2. Bilingual children demonstrate poorer performance on listening tasks than monolingual children (Carrow, 1971, 1972).
3. Being a speaker of the nonstandard English dialect does not negatively affect children's performance on listening tasks (Ramsey, 1972; Frentz, 1971).
4. While technical context quality and visual attention positively affect, poor quality negatively affects the maintenance of verbal exchange between young children (Mueller, 1972).
5. The time of transition from manuscript to cursive writing affects children's handwriting speed and legibility (Otto and Rarick, 1969).

Training Programs Designed to Enhance Children's Performance

6. A technique of oral presentation of reading passages and oral questioning does not enhance children's performance on questions presented following the story (Goolsby, 1968; Goolsby and Lasco, 1970).
7. A program which requires children to repeat sentences aloud is more effective in helping children form sentences on their own than a program which requires them to only listen to spoken sentences (Gupta and Stern, 1969).
8. A regular kindergarten program with the addition of Language Experience Approach experiences is no more effective in enhancing children's syntactic facility than a regular kindergarten program (Christenson, 1972).
9. A sequentially planned public speaking and dramatics program can enhance children's oral composition performance (Niedermeyer and Oliver, 1972).
10. A program stressing the communication of critical information does positively affect children's ability to relay such information to a listener (Shantz and Wilson, 1972).
11. A series of sentence expansion training sessions can help children expand and elaborate their written sentences (Hilfman, 1970).
12. First grade I/T/A instruction is more effective than T.O. instruction in enhancing children's creative writing performance at the second grade level (Nalven and August, 1969).
13. Current language arts methods are ineffectual in enhancing children's real composition performance (Williams, Weinstein and Blackwood, 1970).
14. A handwriting program emphasizing formational procedures is more effective in enhancing the quality, speed, and formation of children's letters than a handwriting program which emphasizes copying (Furner, 1970).
15. A handwriting program which uses the letters of the alphabet as its content will significantly improve children's handwriting readiness scores (Pryzwansky, 1972).
16. Children who experience the LEA Program perform better on spelling tasks than children who experience a basal program (Cramer, 1970).
17. To be effective, a spelling program must select words related to other written words currently of the children's experience, i.e., met by the children in their reading (Calloway, McDaniel and Maston, 1972).
18. Children who experience reading instruction by I/T/A or Lippincott perform better on spelling tasks than children who experience reading by *Phonics and Word Power* or Scott Foresman (Hayes and Wuest, 1969).
19. Children who begin I/T/A formal reading instruction in kindergarten perform better on spelling tasks than children who begin I/T/A formal reading instruction in grade 1 (Shapiro and Willford, 1969).

Relationships Between Various Areas of the Language Arts

20. Children who possess articulation deficiencies perform poorly on listening measures (Marquardt and Saxman, 1972).
21. Children who are labelled as poor in reading learn best by a listening method of instruction (Swalm, 1911).
22. Urban ghetto children possess an oral vocabulary similar to the vocabulary demanded by five major reading series (Cohen and Kornfield, 1970).
23. As a child's level of reading comprehension increases, his use of simple sentences in his written composition decreases while his use of compound and complex written sentences increases (Zeman, 1969).
24. The subsequent pencil copying, handwriting and spelling performance of children who score low on the Bender Gestalt Test is usually low, while the subsequent performance on the same measures by children who score high on the Bender Gestalt is usually high (Wedell and Horne, 1969).
25. Black English dialect pronunciation directly affects the number and type of spelling errors made by Black English dialect speaking children (Kligman, Cronnell and Verna, 1972).
26. Children provided with knowledge of the correctness of their listening response perform better than children provided with no corrective feedback (Fishbein and Osborne, 1971).
27. Children who do not show a clear preference for intelligible speech over degraded speech will encounter, or are encountering, moderate to severe language learning problems (Friedlander and DeLara, 1973).
28. The longer the time children are permitted to write, the better the quality of their written expression (Woodfin, 1969).
29. Felt tip pens and ballpoint pens result in better written performance by children than pencils (Krzesni, 1971).

(The bibliography of the research upon which this report is based is on pp. 309 and 315, Elementary English Journal, February, 1974.)

Appendix C

The Minnesota Right to Read Program

THE MINNESOTA RIGHT TO READ PLAN is an exercise in building reading programs and reading leadership in schools and communities in Minnesota.

The task of reading program building signifies the necessity of focusing on the matter of preschool programs, the elementary school programs, the summer school instruction, the teaching of reading in the junior and senior high schools, and the building of adult basic education programs for the out-of-school illiterate.

The task of reading program building signifies a person responsible for the development and maintenance of a quality reading program. Each public school district and each private and parochial school administrative unit is encouraged to identify such an individual and assign him/her the responsibility, the authority and the time to function effectively in a leadership position.

The Minnesota Plan includes making direct technical assistance available to local education agencies for a sustained period of time. The technical assistance that is offered involves making available alternative models of organization and administration for the various components of a quality reading program in a local education agency such as preschool program alternatives, junior high alternatives, et cetera. Technical assistance also involves a program of preparation for local reading directors that encompasses six broad areas of concern. These areas are basic reading theory, the building of reading programs, communications and change agent skills, a knowledge of commercial reading materials, and the generation of necessary printed materials for the local education agency.

The local reading director receives direct supervisory assistance in implementing the components of a quality reading program. The State of Minnesota Criteria of Excellence in Reading Programing provides a definition as to what it is believed should come to characterize a quality reading program in a local education agency. The following criteria are used as a benchmark in each Right to Read local education agency.

1. There is coordination of all of the administrative facets of the reading program.
2. There is continuous progress organization of the reading curriculum so as to preclude gaps and omissions.
3. There is a record keeping system for individual pupils.
4. There is a complete testing system which includes the use of criterion-referenced measures.
5. There is a commitment by staff to pupil learning and not just to teaching.
6. There is refined accommodation of the varying moments of readiness, varying rates of learning, and special needs and problems of all children.
7. There is accommodation of the Instructional Reading Level of all children.
8. The reading program recognizes and accommodates the implications that racial, cultural, and sexual differences may have in terms of curriculum, methodology, organization and administration, and materials.
9. There are curriculum adjustments in other subject areas for the children who are unable to cope with grade level reading matter.
10. There is ongoing in-service education for the total certificated teaching, supportive, and administrative staffs that is both intensive and extensive. Supportive staff is interpreted to include librarians, teachers of special subjects such as music and physical education, counselors, et cetera.
11. There is a program of preparation in reading for all substitute teachers and non-certificated staff who work in the classroom, such as teacher aides, parent volunteers, et cetera, and for the auxiliary personnel associated with the school.
12. Opportunities are provided to junior and senior high school teachers in academic subject areas to develop the competencies which will allow them to accommodate the varying reading achievement levels of their students.
13. Each local education agency has a cadre of trained volunteer reading helpers.
14. There is an adult basic education component.
15. There is defined curricular provision within the LEA for gifted and/or high achieving pupils.
16. There is an articulated quality pre-school component that involves parents.
17. There exist readily available quality school and public library resources and services that are maximally utilized.
18. Provision has been made within the local education agency to produce quality instructional and practice materials for distribution to the teachers of reading. Materials that allow pupils to work independently and that articulate with the defined curriculum of the LEA are desired.
19. Junior and senior high school teachers of reading have a demonstrated knowledge of developmental reading as it relates to their local eduaction agency's curriculum.
20. The board of education of the local education agency has established an incentive program for teacher in-service education in reading.
21. Each local education agency defines its reading curriculum and makes the information available to the public.
22. Each local education agency has identified someone within the LEA who has the authority, responsibility, and time for the development and maintenance of a quality reading program.
23. The local education agency annually has available the achievement levels of its pupils in reading by grade and/or age level.
24. Each local education agency has developed a reporting system for reading development that fully, accurately, and specifically documents a child's learning and provides such information to the parents.

Appendix D

Reading at the Primary Level

ALTHOUGH THE FOCUS OF THIS PUBLICATION is on "language and communication," reading is such an important part of the total communicative process that the early stages of learning to read must be given special attention. The Minnesota "Right to Read" project resulted from a national concern for developing a literate citizenry. Although that project has a major focus on the early stages of learning to read, its goals and objectives range from early childhood to the adult level. (A descriptive statement about that project is included.)

Also, descriptions of three individual school programs, each of which contains some unique features, have been included:

1) At New Ulm, the unique feature of the primary reading program is the work taking place at the kindergarten level without grouping. In first grade, however, the pupils are grouped, with differing student-teacher ratios according to the amount of help the pupils require.
2) At Owatonna, the Initial Teaching Alphabet (i.t.a.) is used at the beginning stages of the reading program, with the pupils doing much more writing than occurs in the normal program.
3) At Robbinsdale, the Language Experience Approach to Reading places the focus on the pupil's own language, with his own statements being recorded so the pupil is learning to read what he has said.

It seems reasonable to assume that a combination of the best features of all of these programs could result in a more effective program than any one program alone. For this reason, we are presenting a brief description of each program for your exploration. If more information is desired, you may contact the appropriate school.

Beginning Reading in Kindergarten at New Ulm

During the school year ending in 1969 a kindergarten reading program was initiated in the New Ulm School District which now includes Hanska and Lafayette (each of which has one teacher per grade). As of this writing (May, 1973), these pupils are enrolled in fourth grade; however, over half of the pupils enrolled in kindergarten during the school year ending in 1969 now are enrolled in systems other than the New Ulm Public Schools.

Over 1,700 pupils have been exposed to the kindergarten reading program during the five years including the school years ending in 1969 to 1973.

Some Results of the Reading Program

The kindergarten reading program and continued emphasis in succeeding grades has shown values which can be observed. Results of standardized tests show strong gains on the average but the most significant gains are observed at the extremes. Only two to four percent of the total first-grade pupils performed below the national norm in the *Paragraph Meaning Test* of the *Stanford Achievement Tests* as compared to over forty percent for pupils who did not have the early reading program. Results of tests for pupils in second and third grade showed gains, also, when compared with results of tests administered during the earlier years.

It would seem that more boys than before are reading at higher levels. On the other hand, boys dominate the scene at the lower extremes. Part of this is due to the fact that in the Public Schools of New Ulm there is a strong tendency for boys to outnumber girls. In first grade (school year ending in 1973) there were 121 boys as compared with 91 girls. This situation presents some unique problems since boys generally have been found to have more problems in reading than girls.

The librarians at Jefferson and Washington Schools have indicated that they had to upgrade the level of books in the libraries because of increased interest in reading by those pupils who had early reading. The city library, also, has felt the impact of increased circulation.

In the New Ulm Schools, the *Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests* always have been administered in October for third-grade pupils. This is the earliest grade in which these tests are administered in New Ulm; therefore, no third-grade group has had previous experience with this type of test. For many years the median performance given as an I.Q. score was found to be between 106 to 107. For the last two years the median score was found to be 115 and 113 respectively. These were the groups which were exposed to early reading in kindergarten. (The median score for the school year ending in 1973 would have been 114 if it had not been for a transfer into the school two days before the tests were administered.) It is possible and quite likely that the jump in the median I.Q. score was related to the stimulation which the early reading program provided.

A check with teachers in the first, second, and third grades showed that pupils in all rooms were reading texts at grade level. Finally, there are such things as attitudes, work habits, and concepts of self which are difficult to measure. It would seem that the emphasis on success has been of worth and value in these areas, also.

The Basic Approach

The basic approach to the initial reading experiences of pupils centers around a philosophy related to the whole matter of reading and a set of prepared materials organized centrally by the office staff for the sake of efficiency and

economy of time so that the teacher has more time to think, to teach, and to apply his expertise to the situation.

The centrally prepared materials consist of pupil-size flash cards, study sheets, transparencies of these sheets, and tests to evaluate the progress of pupils, individually or as a group. Most of the introductory work is done with transparencies since pupils seem to focus their attention on the screen quite readily. The screen lends itself to large team teaching situations as well as to classroom situations. In addition to this, teachers produce flash cards, work sheets, and other aids as needed to achieve desired results.

The centrally prepared materials for the introductory reading experiences are the same for kindergarten as for first grade for a number of reasons. One of the underlying philosophies as related to the reading program is based on the concept that once a word has been decoded (learned) it must be mastered as a sight word immediately, if possible. This implies that before the second book in any reading series is attempted, there must be mastery of the words in the first at the sight-recognition level because the vocabulary in the first book usually is used in the second.

The Kindergarten Program

In the New Ulm School District, kindergarten pupils have to be five years of age before September 1 of the year in which they are enrolled in kindergarten. Since nearly half of these pupils will have reached their sixth birthdays by the beginning of the second semester and since nearly all pupils are at least five and one-half years of age at that time at which the formal reading program is started, these pupils are assumed to be old enough to learn to read. The work of Gates in the 1930's was one basis for this decision[1]. Also, there are many other researchers who have suggested that there are advantages to early reading[2].

In kindergarten there is no attempt at administrative grouping of pupils according to need. Although grouping in kindergarten might serve some useful purposes as indicated by the fact that some teachers regroup pupils on a team basis and in some cases within their own rooms, there always has been the underlying feeling that pupils might benefit from a year of school experience in which they could be with pupils of all range abilities. There is some question concerning the value of this because pupils at both extremes are so far apart in their needs and in their respective performances that they do not benefit from contact with each other. In fact, it might be kind to children to have groupings.

The main purposes of the kindergarten reading program in New Ulm are early exposure of pupils to reading and early identification of pupils with specific needs. Mastery, at a predetermined level is not a requirement for all pupils. There is an attempt, however, to have each pupil achieve up to his capacity since this possibly is the surest way in which teachers may determine the current learning capabilities of pupils.

In kindergarten, pupils generally are exposed to the basic vocabularies in two selected sets of published preprimers. By the end of the school year most pupils have mastered as sight words a vocabulary of between 100 to 250 words, regardless of the manner in which these words initially were decoded.

Before pupils are allowed to read their first preprimer, the entire vocabulary of eighteen words is developed with the use of study sheets, flash cards, and transparencies, which have been prepared by office personnel. The teacher supplements this with work sheets of her own making. When pupils have mastered as sight words the eighteen words in the first preprimer, children are allowed to read this first preprimer which they generally are able to do at sight. Thus they immediately establish a good purpose for reading, that of reading something which they haven't read before. In kindergarten and in first grade all reading texts are read only after the related vocabularies have been mastered at the sight-reading level.

In kindergarten, many of the words used in reading are used for purposes of incidental spelling and sentence writing. Also, there are many applications of reading to many other units of work and social situations. Key words in this program are exposure, mastery, and enrichment.

At the end of the school year, kindergarten teachers meet with the principal to discuss placement of pupils in first grade according to their needs. Thus two purposes for the early reading program have been accomplished: (1) exposure and (2) identification of pupils according to their specific needs. In addition to that, most pupils have experienced their first successes which come from satisfactory accomplishment in the area of reading.

The Program in First Grade

Pupils in the first grade in the beginning of the school year are exposed to the same basic materials to which they were exposed in kindergarten but the purpose here has become that of mastery at each step before the next is attempted. This is possible because individualization of instruction is achieved through grouping procedures. With very few exceptions, no child is permitted to read a basic reading text unless all of the words in it have been mastered at the automatic sight-vocabulary level, regardless of the decoding method originally used to learn the words.

In first grade, at the beginning of the school year, pupils are grouped according to the decisions of kindergarten teachers the year before; however, no pupil is assigned to any specific teacher. Many different teachers work with pupils in team situations for two to three weeks during which time decisions are made regarding the placement of pupils. After that, pupils are assigned to one of three basic groups according to their needs as interpreted by first-grade teachers. During the school year ending in 1973, however, an intermediary group of pupils was organized because there was a relatively large group of pupils who needed special help as indicated by their performance in kindergarten. The organization of groups at Jefferson School for the school year ending in 1973 was as follows:

AB Section — 2 teachers working with 32 pupils who need very much help.

C Section — 1 teacher working with 20 pupils who need much help.

DEF Section — 3 teachers working with 75 pupils who need some help.

GIJ Section — 3 teachers working with 90 pupils who need little help.

Philosophy

By now the reader must have sensed many aspects related to the underlying philosophy which permeates the program. Some additional comments may be of value.

It must be understood from the beginning that there is no conflict between the New Ulm Reading Program and other programs, published or otherwise. The New Ulm program was organized by people in New Ulm for pupils in the New Ulm School System. Visitors are welcome; they should learn from us, and we should learn from them.

Published materials are carefully screened and selected if they fill a gap in the program. (This does not imply that unselected materials are of no value. There just isn't enough money to buy everything.)

Pupils learn to read by reading. According to Durkin the same activity which is reading for some pupils may be readiness for others.[3] This basic principle has application in the reading program.

When the kindergarten teacher projects a story on the screen, pupils sit around it, read it orally as a group, and possibly some individual pupils read it for others to hear. Several things may be happening. In the group may be pupils who never have seen a book before they came to school, some may never have had the experience of sitting on some "lap" listening to a story as it was being read and "reading along" as they looked at the pages, some never had the experience of communicating orally in the full sense of the word so they lack the ability to speak and to listen; whereas, some others enjoyed all of these experiences. Also, there may be some who read quite fluently at the second or third-grade level.[4] The artistic teacher is able to make a number of things happen in this situation.

For pupils who are able to read, this is a reading experience. They may read to or they may read for the less able. For pupils who have had some exposure, this may be a "read along" experience. For pupils who never had sat on a "lap," the situation is providing the "lap" for the pupil to be read to. (Why penalize the poor fellow still further by waiting until he is ready to read?) For some pupils this is a good listening activity and if they learn at this point that printed symbols say things, there has been progress. Finally, for the pupil who never had the opportunity to listen or to speak, the discussion may provide these experiences. Furthermore, this situation develops a behavior pattern which eventually should result in the kind of self-discipline which is necessary for academic learning to take place. Besides, all of this can be done without embarrassment or frustration to any individual pupil if he is made to feel that he is a part of a team and if he is allowed to make his contribution according to his ability in a group situation.

In the other grades in which there is grouping, the activity can be pinpointed to take care of specific needs and one problem at a time can be tackled until mastery is achieved.

Finally, the teacher is expected to be a living and exciting component of the whole instructional program. The teacher must be an active participant in the total learning process with positive rather than negative outlooks on the situation. Today, when there is so much talk about humanizing the school, what better way is there to accomplish this than to have teachers think with their pupils and to show them that they (the teachers) are interested enough in them (the pupils) to exert more than the minimum effort needed to help pupils achieve success? Learning is an active process and as such means work on the part of all concerned. This program is one of planned and directed effort, the only way in which any activity can be brought to a successful conclusion. If we, as educators, teach pupils to be successful, we will have accomplished the tasks of humanizing the school.

Footnotes and Annotated Bibliography

1. Arthur I. Gates, *The Necessary Mental Age for Beginning Reading*, Elementary School Journal (March, 1937), pp. 497-508

In this report of work done in four different schools, Gates indicates that "Reading is begun by many different materials and general procedures, some of which a pupil can master at the mental age of five with reasonable ease, others of which would give him difficulty at a mental age of seven."

Also, he indicates that "It is quite conceivable — indeed the evidence in general tends now quite definitely to show — that the crucial mental age level will vary with materials; the type of teaching; and the skill of the teacher."

(The New Ulm Reading Program is structured on the concept that jointly we must find the materials and procedures which will make it possible for pupils to learn easily and that teachers develop the skills necessary for success if they need to do this.)

2. Time and space do not permit a complete bibliography. Researchers in the sixties and seventies, however, have done much to indicate that early learning has advantages. Dolores Durkin, Paul McKee, Marjorie Hunt Sutton, J. McVicker Hunt, Jerome S. Brunner, Benjamin S. Bloom, and many other writers, are among those who feel that pupils were capable of more than has been expected in many cases. *The Sixty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* is a source rich in references.
3. In the *Sixty-Seventh Yearbook* indicated above, on page 52, Dolores Durkin states that "The assessment of readiness and the teaching of reading can result from the same situation . . . the same situation can be not only readiness instruction but also instruction reading itself."

Another thought expressed by Durkin in the same work (page 53) indicates indirectly that what happens in reading is related to the quality of teaching when she states that "More specifically, if the learning opportunities offered to children turned out to be uninteresting, routine, and, therefore, not at all productive of some achievement in reading, then there would be the temptation to conclude — as happened on a wide scale back in the 1920's and 1930's — that the children did not learn because they were not ready. Of course, what this suggests is that, in any situation in which readiness is being assessed in relation to responses to learning opportunities, careful attention must always be given to the quality of the opportunities. Otherwise it becomes impossible to judge whether the shortcomings lay with the child or with the kind of instruction that was available."

4. Each year in the New Ulm Schools there are kindergarten pupils who are able to read at second or third-grade level by the end of the year. During the school year ending 1973 a pupil came to kindergarten able to read on sight, and with a reasonable degree of understanding, a sixth-grade book used in the social studies program. When one teacher has such pupils in a room with twenty-five others who range in performance all the way from this extreme to the opposite extreme, the matter of providing common experiences which will meet the needs of all pupils presents challenges even to the most experienced of teachers.

ðis is printed in ðe iniʃhial teeching alfabet, ðe purpos ov which is not, as miet bee suppœsd, tœ reform our spelling, but tœ imprœv ðe lerning ov reeding. it is intended ðat when ðe beginner is flœent in ðis meedium hee ʃhœd bee confiend tœ reeding in ðe tradiʃhonal alfabet

if yœ hav red as far as ðis, ðe nue meedium will hav prœvd tœ yœ several points, ðe mœst important ov which is ðat yœ, at eny ræt, hav eesily mæd ðe ðænj from ðe ordinary rœman alfabet with convenʃhonal spellings tœ ðe iniʃhial teeching alfabet with systematic spelling.

The Initial Teaching Alphabet is simply an extended version of the Roman alphabet, consisting of 44 characters, each with a constant sound. Sir James Pitman, who designed the alphabet, has retained 24 of the existing Roman letters and has added 20 new characters.

a	ɑ	æ	au	b	c	ʧ
apple	father	angel	author	bed	cat	chair
d	ee	e	f	g	h	ie
doll	eel	egg	finger	girl	hat	tie
i	j	k	l	m	n	ŋ
ink	jam	kitten	lion	man	nest	king
œ	o	ʊ	ʊœ	ou	oi	p
toe	on	book	food	out	oil	pig
r	ɾ	s	ʃh	ʒ	t	ʧh
red	bird	soap	ship	treasure	tree	three
ðh	ue	u	v	w	wh	y
mother	due	up	van	window	wheel	yellow
z	ʒ					
zoo	is					

INITIAL TEACHING ALPHABET FOUNDATION

52 Vanderbilt Avenue • New York, New York 10017

Fig. 1

The Initial Teaching Alphabet (i.t.a.) at Owatonna

ONE OF THE MAJOR OBJECTIVES of the reading program is to implant in children the zest for reading. This can be achieved only if children master the necessary skills and develop positive attitudes toward the act of reading. The beginning reading program is designed especially to accommodate the psychological and intellectual needs of young children. To reach this objective, the Initial Teaching Alphabet (i.t.a.) is the medium used for instructional materials. The Reading Readiness activities prepare children for the more comprehensive learning required for mastery of reading. Learning strategies reflecting the most recent findings in the psychology of learning guide children to a high degree of reading achievement in i.t.a., and the Langauge Arts Transition materals provide for a successful transfer to the traditional alphabet in the areas of reading, writing, and spelling.

i.t.a. or the Initial Teaching Alphabet is a forty-four symbol alphabet developed in England by Sir James Pitman. It consists of twenty-four of the twenty-six letters of the traditional alphabet plus twenty additional symbols that are combinations and variations of the traditional alphabet. The purpose of the i.t.a. as a medium is to make the initial stages of learning to read easier and less confusing for the beginner than traditional methods. The i.t.a. removes the phonic inconsistencies and spelling irregularities of traditional orthography.

In i.t.a. only one symbol for the sound is used. Once the child associates each of the i.t.a. symbols with its respective sound, he can read and write any word he can say. Within the design of the letter and its use as a consistent symbol are built other special considerations which reduce the difference between the appearance of words in the i.t.a. and in the conventional alphabet. With this consistent tool, a child's earliest experience at school demonstrates to him that once he can apply it successfully, success becomes a continuing part of his school experience.

The objective of the reading program is to improve the quality of reading instruction for children. The scope and sequence of the first three levels reflects this objective. Each level provides children with activities which lead to successful achievement in the next level.

The First Level includes activities, material and instructional strategies designed to promote success in reading readiness and beginning reading in kindergarten. Each specific activity was selected and incorporated into the program on the basis of its direct contribution to promoting efficient reading achievement.

The Second Level has been designed specifically to guide children in grade one from the readiness and beginning reading activities to a high degree of pretransition achievement.

The major objectives of the Third Level program are to guide children through a series of comprehensive and systematic learning experiences which will facilitate their transferring their reading, writing and spelling skills to traditional orthography. The most significant objectives are:

1. To provide conditions that are conducive to helping children become more independent in their learning endeavors.
2. To provide the children with guidance and activities that maximize their learning to transfer language arts skills to other subject areas.
3. To demonstrate the ability to master a level of reading achievement in the traditional orthography consistent with achievement in the i.t.a. medium.

A great variety of teaching techniques are used in the i.t.a. classes. These include the use of experience stories, overhead projectors, individual and group instruction, and writing activities. The medium works well with "look-say" and "phonics" approaches. It can be used in programmed instruction. It works well with large groups, small groups, with individuals, and in team-teaching situations.

The story content of the i.t.a. readers is significant. The guiding principle was to select stories that enlarge the conceptual and verbal horizons of the child. The stories extend the child's world from himself and his immediate surroundings outward — as far as outer space. Many of the stories stress the inner reactions and emotional experiences shared by all children everywhere. It is the author's hope that children will search for the cause of their actions, consider motives, and perceive the complex process of growing up alertly and honestly. The stories are designed to do more than teach a child to read. Children need to understand that they possess creative intelligence and imagination, that reading is an important key to their world, and that their world is very wide indeed.

An overwhelming majority of teachers name the early start and the improved quantity and quality of the children's free writing among the main benefits of i.t.a. Everybody has been astounded at the enjoyment children find in free writing in i.t.a. Right from the start the child can write exactly what he says.

Evaluation findings indicate that i.t.a. is having a multifaceted effect on an impressive majority of children. These findings, together with the subjective opinions and observations of those people most directly concerned with the implementation of the i.t.a. are:

Large numbers of children learning to read with i.t.a. —

1. read earlier and more comprehensively,
2. possess greater symbolic competence,
3. show a more favorable attitude toward reading,
4. exhibit greater confidence and curiosity,
5. enjoy more independence and self-direction,
6. seem more highly motivated for schoolwork in general,
7. produce unprecedented quantity and quality of written expression,
8. present fewer behavior problems,
9. evidence improvement in general and specific speech habits,
10. experience superior progress in general language development.

However, in some minds, there are remaining doubts about the use of i.t.a. as a beginning reading medium. These doubts include a second alphabet, home reading, book supply and change of school.

Some adults worry that children who use i.t.a. in school see T.O. elsewhere. This seems of small concern to the children in actual practice; they accept and adapt to this situation as to many others. Many find transition to T.O. all the easier through having met it out of school. Schools, where i.t.a. and T.O. books are provided in every classroom, report that children pick up both types without appearing to notice the difference.

A few anxious parents fear they cannot help their children with i.t.a. until they try to read it. Then they find it easy and logical. Most publishers now have books in i.t.a. And through i.t.a. children come all the more quickly to good books in T.O.

Children who move from T.O. to i.t.a. schools find the new medium easy and spontaneously adjust to it. But if the incoming child reads well in T.O., leave him in it. Follow the child's lead. Many who start in T.O. demand to be included in i.t.a. Children can live happily in both worlds. It parents plan to move, it is recommended that they be given the option of an i.t.a. or T.O. class for their child.

In summary, children who learn to read and write easily with i.t.a. develop confidence and independence, and show initiative and responsibility at a quite early stage. This leads to a natural increase in individual study, exploration and discovery. Early reading and writing helps the understanding of other subjects and leaves more time for them.

Materials

Greater Cleveland Reading Program

Teachers' Guides

Readers, Workbooks, Practice Pages, Filmstrips, Games, Wordcards

Supplementary Readers

Early-to-Read Series

Downing Series

i.t.a. Library Books

Teacher-developed materials

i.t.a. Foundation
52 Vanderbilt Ave.
New York, N. Y. 10017

The Language Experience Approach at Robbinsdale

The language experience approach emphasizes that from the time a child can name things in his own pictures, he can see his words take the printed form before his eyes. What he tells about his picture needs to be read by the child and it helps him understand that the printed words he sees all around him are the same ones he says and hears in the speech of English-speaking people.

The child soon learns that:

What he thinks about he can say.
What he says can be written or dictated.
What he has written can be read.
What others have written, he can read.

The skills emphasized in the language experience approach are introduced to help him develop these ideas about language relationships. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are not separate "subjects" but are taught as one comprehensive entity.

The most important part of the language experience approach is that the child provides the words in which he is interested and wants to read. He first sees his own speech translated into printed symbols rather than seeing someone else's words (which must be turned back into speech) on a printed page. In this way the child begins to create his own literature — literature that is important because the child is deeply involved in a personal way.

Next the child will read what others in his class have written. Finally he will be reading a variety of books and readers written by professional authors.

What Special Preparation is Needed by the Teacher Before Initiating a Language Experience Program?

1. Talk with your principal and with the reading consultant about the language experience approach and your ideas for implementing it.
2. Read up on the approach, using as many resources as possible. Each school has copies of *Language Experiences in Reading, Level I, Level II,* and *Level III* by Roach Van Allen and Claryce Allen. There are also books and periodical articles available in the professional library. The reading consultant has books and articles that may be borrowed.
3. If possible, visit a classroom in which language experience is being used and talk with the teacher.
4. Locate as many books (basal, supplementary, paperback, etc.) as possible and bring several of each title into the classroom.
5. Organize record keeping devices so that the progress of each child can be charted in detail.
6. Make tentative plans on how the phonetic and comprehension skills that require direct instruction should be introduced, reviewed, and maintained in your classroom.
7. Devise many individual activities for children to use in the classroom. Decide tentatively on how these should be introduced to the children and the general rules of use and behavior.
8. Plan with the principal on how to explain to the parents what will be done in the language experience approach during the year. Perhaps a letter may be composed or a meeting planned.
9. Ask your principal to order special materials such as picture story paper, 3" by 5" cards, and 3" by 5" alphabetical index cards. (Parents will be asked to provide index boxes for the 3" by 5" cards.)
10. Plan at least the first unit to be used. Have in mind other units to be used throughout the year and the general order in which they might be used.
11. Communicate either formally or informally to other teachers at your grade level and at second grade to inform them of your planned program.

How Can the Language Experience Approach Be Started by a Teacher Using it for the First Time?

The language experience approach can be started immediately in the fall on the first day of school or it can be introduced gradually throughout the year. The way a teacher starts to use this approach depends on her (his) preference and on the make-up of her (his) class. Either way requires extensive previous preparation and planning.

How Can the Language Experience Approach Be Implemented Immediately in the Fall?

If the teacher decides to start the children in language experience at once, she might plan her first week similar to the suggested pattern given below.

FIRST DAY

1. The children gather in a "learning circle" and introduce themselves to each other.
2. The teacher starts by talking about letters, introducing the following concepts:
   a. There are 26 letters in the alphabet. (Indicate the alphabet posted on the wall.)
   b. Although some children may not know the alphabet at this time, all will know the letters of the alphabet by the end of the year.
   c. Each letter has a special secret. That secret is its sound.
   d. Letters make words. Words make sentences. Sentences make stories.
   e. People write stories. Children can write stories. They can be authors and illustrators.
   f. Reading is talk written down. You *think* it, you *say* it, you *write* it, you *read* it.
3. The teacher then suggests that the children turn talk into reading.
4. Each child thinks of something he likes, for example, "school." The teacher says, "Johnny said, 'I like school.' Let's write that down."
5. The teacher writes down each child's sentence on a large tablet on the easel, keeping the sentences in the room for future reference. As she writes the sentences, she spells out each word and mentions capital letters, quotation marks, and periods.
6. After each sentence is written on the tablet, all the children read the sentence together.
7. The teacher reminds the children that Johnny *thought* of the sentence, he *said* it, it was *written*, and everyone *read* it. She brings out the idea that the children are reading already and that anyone can read — it's easy.
8. All children have an opportunity to dictate a sentence, with one or more breaks in order to maintain attention and interest.
9. During the day, the teacher copies each sentence on a tag board strip.
10. At the end of the day, each child takes his own sentence home, to read to his parents and to keep for his own.

SECOND DAY

1. The children come to the learning circle.
2. They reread the stories they wrote the day before from the tablet.
3. The teacher may help the children elaborate on the sentences, such as "I like school because . . ."
4. The children dictate a group story with the help of the teacher. Again, the emphasis is: we *think* it, we *say* it, we *write* it, we *read* it.
5. Emphasize left to right as the group story is written.
6. Then the teacher reads a story to the children, pointing out the author and illustrator.
7. The teacher tells the children they can be authors and illustrators of their own stories.
8. If the topic is, for example, "animals," each child chooses an animal to write about.
9. Each child illustrates a picture of his own chosen animal. Then he dictates to the teacher, "This is a (an) . . ."
10. While the teacher writes individual stories, the children illustrate their animal pictures and are at play centers.
11. At the end of the day, the children take home their individual stories. These stories are kept at home.

THIRD DAY

The third day would operate similarly to the second day.

FOURTH DAY

The fourth day would be the same as the second and third days. At this time the teacher could start readiness activities. With more mature groups, beginning work on sounds could be initiated.

Appendix E

SMALL-GROUP TRAINING AND THE ENGLISH CLASSROOM

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GROUP DYNAMICS IS BACK AGAIN! Reborn in the small-group research of the social psychologists, group work today is rechristened as sensitivity training, basic encounter group work, T-group, etc. These "training" groups are experiences in social creativity in which ten to fifteen individuals in a short but concentrated period of time try to create, develop, and maintain a small social organization, facing the problem of social formation, individual relationships, and work achievement. The popularity of these T-groups in business, religious and some educational institutions has proliferated throughout the country. They have influenced the classroom itself. The old-fashioned seminar has taken on new overtones.

It is easy to see why. The current zeitgeist of modular or flexible scheduling has called for a pedagogy that puts students on their own more in situations of independent study or small-group situations. The role of the teacher, knowing as he does that a person *assimilates* fully only that knowledge he has discovered himself, is to make it easier for the student to learn by himself or in small-group *discovery* sessions.

Yet, with all we know about how individuals behave in groups and how they can be trained to function better, the average English classroom remains unaffected. The English teacher is usually ineffective in using small student groups. If students do work in groups ("Good grief, how to you stand the noise?"), it is often only a geographic arrangement of chairs in a circle ("Everyone knows students should have group work!") in which individuals have little concern over group maintenance and often use the group for self-serving ends. When and where are the students ever taught to work in groups? And what are the significant learnings that can come from small-group work that can't be accomplished in the traditional thirty-student class situation? I should like to go into some basic training procedures that are possible in the English classroom and give some concrete suggestions for using small groups in teaching the novel, drama, or poetry.

Students don't simply learn more by being put into small groups. Indeed, often the converse is true. Students need to be shown the process of developing a group in which learning can take place. To begin, then, the English teacher should spend time teaching the skills involved in group procedures to the class. Too often the teacher refuses to teach the group process but rather expects students to perform magically task situations in groups. I often begin by explaining that, in his group, each student will adopt a role, that this role will shift, and that it will either *aid* or *deter* the group in reaching its goal. Further, I explain that although I can make them aware of their behavior roles, it will be up to the students themselves to evaluate roles and change roles if expedient.

We begin by talking about eighteen roles[1] broken up into three major categories (students are asked to memorize the terminology). Under MAINTENANCE ROLES, a group member can adopt the following:

1. **Encouraging:** Being warm and responsive to others; accepting the contributions of others; giving others an opportunity for recognition.
2. **Expressing group feelings:** Sensing feelings, mood, relationships within the group and sharing one's own feelings with other members.
3. **Harmonizing:** Attempting to reconcile differences and reduce tension by giving people a chance to explore their differences.
4. **Compromising:** When one's own idea or status is involved in a conflict, offering to compromise; admitting error; disciplining oneself to maintain group cohesion.
5. **Gate-keeping:** Keeping communication channels open and facilitating the participation of others.
6. **Setting standards:** Expressing standards for the group to achieve; applying standards in evaluating group function and production.

The second category is that of TASK ROLES.

1. **Initiating:** Proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem; suggesting a procedure of ideas.
2. **Information or opinion seeking:** Requesting facts; asking for suggestions and ideas.
3. **Information or opinion giving:** Offering facts; stating a belief; giving suggestions or ideas.
4. **Clarifying or elaborating:** Interpreting or reflecting ideas and suggestions; clearing up confusion; indicating alternatives before the group; giving examples.
5. **Summarizing:** Pulling together related ideas; restating suggestions after the group has discussed them; offering a decision for the group to accept or reject.
6. **Consensus testing:** Checking with group to see how much agreement has been reached.

The final category is that of SELF-SERVING ROLES.

1. **Dominator:** Interrupts, embarks on long monologues, is overpositive, tries to lead group, asserts authority, is autocratic, monopolizes.
2. **Blocker:** Interferes with the progress of the group by rejecting ideas; takes negative attitude on all suggestions, argues unduly, is pessimistic, refuses to cooperate.
3. **Deserter:** Withdraws in some way; is indifferent, aloof, excessively formal; daydreams, doodles, whispers to others, wanders from subject.
4. **Aggressor:** Struggles for status, boasts, criticizes; deflates ego or status of others.

* Reprinted from *The English Journal*, September, 1969 (Excerpts).

[1] Malcolm Knowles and Hulda Knowles, *Introduction to Group Dynamics* (New York: Association Press, 1963), pp. 34-35.

5. **Recognition-seeker:** Exaggerated attempt to get attention by boasting or claiming long experience or great accomplishments.
6. **Playboy type:** Displays a lack of involvement in the group process by horseplay, inappropriate humor, or cynicism.

Students will next need to discover the real meaning of these categories at the experience level. This they can do through actual group process. Numerous task situations may be set up to do this or the teacher might prefer to use unstructured groups which are given no subject to discuss and in which the group process itself serves as topic, although this is time-consuming and not too suitable for the fifty-minute class period. I have found the *Space Survival Task*[2] a good beginning one. Students work individually to rank fifteen items in order of importance to survival after a crash landing on the moon. In groups, following this, members must reach a *consensus* on a ranking of the items, finally coming up with one master ranking. Following the completion of the task, members receive responses to their group behavior. One of the best ways to get this response is to assign another group to observe the discussion group (either one-to-one observation or each evaluator observing the total group). The eighteen categories may be rated on a scale or by narrative incident. (See attached "Personal Reaction Form.") For more practice, the observers may switch roles with the performing groups and the process may be repeated with a different task situation given.

[2] Many of these procedures have been worked out by the National Training Laboratories in Bethel, Maine.

SPACE SURVIVAL TASK

Name_____
Group_____
Period_____

Instructions: Consider yourself a member of a spaceship crew. Your spacecraft was originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Due to an energy failure, however, it was necessary for you and your crew to crash land some two hundred miles from the mother ship. In landing much of the equipment aboard was damaged beyond use and several of the crew were injured. Fifteen items of equipment were left intact and undamaged during the crash landing and, since it is necessary for you to reach the mother ship as quickly as possible if you are to survive, some of the undamaged equipment must be selected for the two hundred mile trek which lies ahead. Below are listed the fifteen (15) items of equipment which are still in serviceable condition. Your task is to rank order all fifteen items in terms of their importance and utility in insuring your survival on the journey to the mother ship. Place number 1 by the most important item, number 2 by the second most, and so on through number 15 for the least important survival item. Consider at all times what you know about moon conditions in making your selection. Please work individually without consulting other crew members.

Rank	Items
____	Box of matches
____	Food concentrate
____	Parachute silk
____	Two .45 caliber pistols
____	Case of dehydrated Pet Milk
____	Two 100 lb. tanks of oxygen
____	Solar powered portable heater
____	50 feet of nylon rope
____	Stellar map of the moon's constellation
____	Life raft (self-contained inflation)
____	Magnetic compass
____	Five gallons of water
____	Chemical signal flares
____	First aid kit with oral and injection medicines
____	FM receiver-transmitter

PERSONAL REACTION FORM

RATER _____ RATEE _____

Group _____ Period _____

Circle the number which you think most closely approximates the extent to which the ratee has been each of the following:

	NOT AT ALL	A LITTLE BIT	TO SOME EXTENT	FAIRLY MUCH	A GREAT DEAL
1. Initiating	1 2	3 4	5 6	7 8	9
2. Information or Opinion Seeking	1 2	3 4	5 6	7 8	9
3. Information or Opinion Giving	1 2	3 4	5 6	7 8	9
4. Etc. Continue with task, maintenance, and self-serving roles — all 18.					

The outcomes of these practice situations are:

(1) That students familiarize themselves with behavioral definitions of eighteen categories germane to group function.

(2) That they learn to adopt roles as needed. A student knowing nothing about space travel, for example, can still function to test consensus, harmonize, encourage others who have more information to supply to divulge it. He/she learns to adopt group maintenance roles instead of self-serving roles.

(3) Students get multiple *responses* from peers on how they are seen as behaving in groups, apart from how they *thought* they were behaving. These new perceptions of self can be most revealing to students and can pave the way for a change in behavior within a group. By using students rather than teacher, powerful group norms are provided.

Space does not permit going into this phase of training in great detail. English teachers should feel free to use their best sources of aid in this group training; namely, the school counselors. The guidance people should be called upon by the English department in in-class situations as well as at department inservice projects. And if all this seems unrelated to "English," let the teacher bear in mind that this communication skill certainly has an educational priority above copying lecture notes or answering fact questions on a timely short story.

Once the initial group processes have been practiced, the students are ready to employ group learning techniques on literature tasks. At this point the teacher must remind himself (herself) that group learning is seemingly slow and inefficient. Yet it is real learning, because the student is grappling with ideas, discovering things in a meaningful way. He (she) is developing a mode of response that differs from the *duplication* process and follows the higher mental processes of *implication* and *application*.

Let us take the novel *The Scarlet Letter* to test the new procedures. Now most teachers could probably give splendid lectures for several days on the book's symbolism, structure, style, Puritan metaphysics, etc. And students would often be dutifully enough trained to parrot back a large percentage of this material on a post-test. These "telling" procedures, however, would not attain one of the paramount goals we have for students of literature: the student would not have grappled with the book nor wrenched out any meaning of significance to his/her world. In short the student would be less well prepared to deal with another Hawthorne novel — say *The House of the Seven Gables* on his/her own.

I have found that three penetrating questions presented to groups for one or two hours can get students into *The Scarlet Letter* in a way no lecture (or pseudo-discussion arising from teacher-initiated questions and teacher-dominated answers) ever could. Set small groups of four to five to work on these questions and see if they can come up with a consensus.

> Why, after the group has tried and condemned Hester Prynne, but at the same time left her free to come and go as she pleases, does Hester in fact decide to stay?
> Why and under what altered circumstances does she at a later date settle on a plan of flight?
> And finally, why does the flight materialize, or rather, to phrase the question more in keeping with the novel's suggestion at this point, why is the scheme foredoomed even before it is tried?

While the groups are tackling significant questions about the book, the teacher will be serving as a "resource" person, available for a group to call upon when needed, and as a peripatetic evaluator of group activity. In this role, the teacher construes each group task not only as a learning task *per se* but as a learning situation in the *learning of how to learn*.

With most of the group activities the teacher will probably want to use student observers or video tape for a record. (I often have one group make a circle around the first group and observe them anecdotally on a one-to-one ratio.) The learning model would go something like this:

1. Objective, behaviorally stated
2. Skill session
3. Record data
4. Responses — analyze data
5. More practice.

Not only do small-group discussions of novels lead to effective learning but small groups may be employed in a variety of ways in drama, short story, or poetry units.

Appendix F

Eliminating Sex Bias In Education

THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION BELIEVES that our educational system has helped perpetuate the division of the sexes into predetermined roles and has failed to provide freedom from discrimination because of sex and marital status.

The practice of stereotyping and socializing men and women into "masculine"/"feminine" roles has resulted in prejudice, dominance, discrimination and segregation harmful to the human development of both sexes.

While there is awareness among many people of racism and its debilitating effects on our society in the wastage of human potential, there is not the same awareness of the harmful effects and the extent of discrimination and stereotyping due to prejudices concerning gender.

The State Board of Education asks the Department and the public schools to assume leadership in eliminating bias and discrimination so that the many practices based on sexual stereotyping can be ended and the assumptions changed with evolvement of new values.

To implement this policy, the State Board of Education requests the Commissioner and the Department to act as follows:

Consider including a component on sex bias in the Human Relations Certification Regulation (Edu 520-521). Human relations training should include a study of the effects of sexual bias.

The State Board of Education is concerned about four areas in particular: discrimination in hiring and promoting, sex requirements for boys and girls to participate in sports and extra-curricular activities, sex bias in curricular and teaching materials, and providing in-service training for administrators and teachers to overcome the habits and practices of teaching stereotyped social roles.

Discrimination in hiring and promoting on the basis of sex and marital status has been a damaging and long-standing practice in Minnesota's educational system. Although women teachers still outnumber men, the number of women has been steadily declining for several years.

Promotion bias against females shows in the low number of women who are principals or superintendents. In 1971, only 24.6% of the elementary principals were women, .5% of the secondary principals, and there were no women superintendents in Minnesota.

The State Board requests the State Department to:

Review all Department job descriptions and eliminate all sex-based requirements for employment or promotion.

Develop a program within the Department which provides equal opportunity for promotion to higher level positions regardless of sex or marital status.

The State Board requests local boards to:

Provide equal opportunities for employment and promotion regardless of sex or marital status.

Make known to hiring officials and local personnel committees the pertinent laws on sex discrimination and to assure adherence to these laws.

Extra-curricular activities have too long been typed as masculine and feminine, resulting in exclusion of female students from the majority of sports activities. Certain courses are also presented as being for males or females, limiting the educational opportunities and destroying the motivation of all students for gaining a full education.

School counselors should encourage students to consider careers in accordance with their interests and abilities regardless of the traditional roles or careers.

The State Board requests the State Department to:

Review all State Board rules and regulations and take steps to eliminate all sex-based requirements for courses and extra-curricular activities for students.

The State Board requests local school boards and administrators to:

Provide equal access for all pupils to local school facilities, programs, equipment, staff services, and financial resources.

Some textbooks now used reflect stereotyped concepts of masculine and feminine roles. Some elementary textbooks show male adult roles as fireman, policeman, milkman or, predominantly, a man in a business suit and tie who returns home to a wife who has spent the day doing dishes and housework.

These stereotypes lead children to believe that their parents are somehow unusual, because the majority of men in the state are not businessmen and many women work and support a family.

Boys in these books are shown as inventive, adventurous and capable while girls are shown as passive, negative influences who are preparing for a life in their hoped-for future household. These stereotypes discourage young girls from developing their basic personal potential and withholds them from the motivation gained from outside reinforcement that is granted to males.

The State Board requests local school boards and administrators to:

Select books which promote elimination of sex bias.

Books and other materials for raising consciousness of the patterns of existing bias and containing information on employment and promotion should be available to all people in the school system.

The State Board requests the State Department to:

Arrange a collection of appropriate books, materials and media on sex bias to be available in the State Department Professional Library and to inform staff

of available information.

Arrange for preparation of an annotated bibliography on sex bias to be distributed to all school districts in the state.

Career education programs are now being developed in elementary grades and junior high. In these programs and in existing senior high programs, the careers must be presented as available for both male and female students.

Though programs are nominally open to both, the large part of young women presently in post-secondary vocational training take clerical, secretarial or practical nursing courses, showing that little consideration has been given to less traditional roles. Girls should be encouraged to explore non-traditional courses in line with their particular interests.

The State Board requests the local boards and administrators to:

Develop career education programs for all students which recognize the need for equality of opportunity in career choice regardless of sex.

The fourth major concern of the State Board of Education is to provide in-service training for teachers, counselors and administrative and supervisory personnel to help them recognize practices of stereotyping and prejudice and readjust their teaching methods and values to end the harmful practices.

The State Board requests the State Department to:

Arrange staff meetings to raise the level of awareness of all staff members.

Include components on sex bias in education in the conferences and workshops sponsored for local administrators and school board members.

Encourage teacher-preparing institutions to include information about sex bias in pre-service and in-service programs and courses.

The State Board requests local school boards and administrators to:

Provide in-service training for professional and supporting staff members on elimination of sex bias.

The State Board of Education hopes these steps will bring Minnesota's schools closer to the goal of equal education and employment opportunities for all.

Adopted by the Minnesota State Board of Education September 11, 1972

Bibliography

A more comprehensive bibliography on Sex Bias/Sex Discrimination in Education is being prepared and will be available from The Professional Library and The Equal Opportunities Section, Minnesota State Department of Education, Capitol Square Building, St. Paul, Minnesota 55101. The following items might be considered as a beginning for a professional library at the local level:

GENERAL SOURCES

Dick and Jane as Victims; Sex Stereotyping in Children's Readers. Women on Words and Images, Princeton, N. J., 1972.

Goldstein, Janet Mendell. "From Pandora to Nora: Literature and Women's Liberation." (Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, Philadelphia, Nov. 22-23, 1973.)

Howe, Florence. "Sexism, Racism, and the Education of Women." *Today's Education,* 62, 47-48, May, 1973.

Janeway, E. *Man's World, Woman's Place. A Study in Social Mythology,* Morrow, New York, N. Y., 1971.

Johnson, Dale D. "Sex Differences in Reading Across Cultures." *Reading Research Quarterly* 9(1), 67-86, 1973-1974.

Ladner, J. A. *Tomorrow's Tomorrow: The Black Woman.* Anchor Books, Garden City, N. Y., 1971.

Rothchild, N. *Sexism in School — A Handbook for Action.* N. Rothchild, 14 Hickory Street, Mahtomedi, Minn. 55115, 1973.

Rosenberg, Max and Park, Clara Claiborne. "As We Like It — How a Girl Can be Smart and Still Popular." *Educational Leadership,* 31, 107-109, Nov., 1973.

Sexism in Education. Emma Willard Task Force, Box 14229, Minneapolis, Minn. 55414, 1973.

Taylor, S. S. "Educational Leadership — A Male Domain." *Phi Delta Kappan* 55, 124-128, 1973.

"Women and Counselors." *Personnel and Guidance Journal,* 5(2) 84-156 (entire issue) October, 1972.

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

Minnesota State Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota

"Eliminating Sex Bias in Education." (Statement of the State Board Policy and Proposed Action) 1972.

"Report to the Minnesota State Board of Education" from Sex Bias Task Force, 1974.

Thoni, Richard J. and others. "Women and the World of Work" — A career education resource guide. 1972.

Minnesota State Department of Human Rights, St. Paul, Minnesota

"Guidelines for Eliminating Sex Discrimination in Elementary, Junior and Senior High School Athletics." 1974.

United States Government

"Guide to Federal Laws Prohibiting Sex Discrimination." (U. S. Commission on Civil Rights) U. S. Government Printing Office. 1974.

"A Look at Women In Education: Issues and Answers for HEW." U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C., 1972.

"Education Programs and Activities Receiving or Benefiting from Federal Assistance; Non-discrimination on the Basis of Sex." U. S. Department of HEW. *Federal Register,* 39, 22227-22240, June 20, 1974.

"Fact Sheet on the Earning Gap, 1972"; "Facts on Women Workers of Minority Races, 1972"; "Handbook on Women Workers, 1969"; "Who Are the Working Mothers, 1972"; "Women Workers Today, 1973"; "Why Women Work, 1973". U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

"Oversight Hearings on Discrimination Against Women." (U. S. House of Representatives, Committee on Education and Labor, Ad Hoc Subcommittee on Discrimination Against Women, 92nd Congress) U. S. Govt. Printing Office, 1972.

"The Social and Economic Status of the Black Population in the U. S., 1973. (Report, U. S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-23, #48) U. S. Government Printing Office, 1974. (Special Section on Women.)

Sex Stereotyping in Children's Readers *

In a study of 2,760 stories in 134 elementary school readers from 14 different publishers, these statistics were compiled:

Boy-centered stories to girl-centered stories	5:2
Adult male main characters to adult female main characters	3:1
Male biographies to female biographies	6:1
Male animal stories to female animal stories	2:1
Male folk or fantasy stories to female folk or fantasy stories	4:1

	Boys	Girls
Active Mastery Themes		
1. Ingenuity, cleverness	131	33
2. Industry, problem solving ability	169	47
3. Strength, bravery, heroism	143	36
4. Routine helpfulness	53	68
Elective or creative helpfulness	54	19
5. Apprenticeship, acquisition of skills, coming of age	151	53
6. Earning, acquisition, unearned rewards	87	18
7. Adventure, exploration and imaginative play	216	68
Second Sex Themes		
1. Passivity and pseudo-dependence	19	119
2. Altruism	55	22
3. Goal constriction and rehearsal for domesticity	50	166
4. Incompetence, mishaps	51	60
5. Victimization and humiliation of the opposite sex	7	68

* Statistics from "Dick and Jane as Victims," Women on Words and Images, Princeton, N. J., 1972.

National Organization for Women
Women on Words and Images
P. O. Box 2163
Princeton, N. J. 08450

"We've got plenty of time to play with girls . . . when we grow up!"

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Appendix G

Some Innovative Projects in Minnesota 1970-1974

Anoka
Hennepin

"The Advanced Basic Skills Course" endeavored to improve the communication skills of secondary school students. Key activities included a student operated radio station for the school, creative video tape programming and original film productions.

Austin

"Thoughtful Readers Extend Excellence" provided comfortable, attractive reading areas and an extensive selection of reading materials responsive to children's varied interests and abilities.

Bloomington

The Oak Grove Junior High School developed a model "Partnership Approach" to total staff development, merging preservice and inservice education through the cooperation and shared responsibility of public schools, colleges, universities, teachers, organizations and the Minnesota State Board of Education.

Blue Earth

"Curriculum Enrichment Through Cinematic Arts." Junior high school students and teachers participated in a summer workshop aimed at developing materials for instruction in photographic techniques.

Burnsville

"Curriculum Relevancy in the Junior High School." At Nicollet Junior High School the student's daily schedule is structured so that he must select an area of interest for each mod during the school day.

Burnsville
Richfield

"Futuristics: Theory and Application in High School" will inaugurate a series of instructional activities, including curriculum development, coursework, and off-site internships for students in this community and Richfield to provide opportunities for future planning with respect to a variety of social topics.

Burnsville
Minnetonka
Richfield

"Cooperative Seminar On the Teaching-Learning Process."
Working with 360 elementary students from the three cooperating districts, forty teachers and administrators attempted to build a learning environment modeled after the Leicestershire County Schools in Great Britain, in which all participants would have a maximum chance for individual growth and expression.

Danube

"The Small School Continuous Progress Curriculum" is designed to effect a transformation of instruction in grades seven through twelve in a setting enrolling less than 300 students.

Duluth

"A Program for Evaluating Non-Tenure Teachers" is an approach for involving full-time classroom teachers for the first time in evaluating new teachers, replacing the usual practice of evaluation by administrators.

Grand Rapids

"An Alternate Form of Education, Grades 4-12." Designed with the participation of the community, it provides for volunteer enrollment, consumer selection of individual goals and process and rate of learning, and a don system of student guidance, utilizing a myriad of learning programs.

Chaska

A career education program via two-way cable communication. Both elementary and secondary students use the TV cable system to gain access to information on specific careers, to observe and speak with a number of professionals at their jobs, and to produce video programs on specific occupations in the community.

Hoffman

"Project Input" gave junior and senior high school students a chance to participate in the activities of a nursing home, a day-care center, and the elementary school, for the purpose of developing service skills and attitudes, community awareness and concern, empathic understanding of the aged and the ill, and sensitivity to the needs of younger children.

Holdingford

"Distar-Kindergarten Group." A structured method of teaching reading, language, arithmetic, to groups of five or less, gearing instruction to the slowest student.

Hutchinson

"Gifted Opportunities Center." Staff specialists travel throughout the project area, providing assistance in identifying students and helping teachers design and improve programs for talented students.

Minneapolis

"Metro Newsbeat" is intended to update and increase the sophistication of journalism instruction through cooperating with the *Minneapolis Star* to establish a laboratory course for high school students and teachers under the direction of a professional journalist.

"Willard Increasing Pride on the Go (WIPOG)" is developing a unique form of community-school cooperation. Block clubs are being organized to increase communication and community awareness of school affairs and to change attitudes toward school while helping children with school work.

"Legitimizing Education for Individual Life Styles — School of Survival (SOS)" focuses on fifteen-year-old "failures" in recognition of the dilemma they encounter in coping with the multiple demands and restrictions of society.

"Alternatives in Education: An Open School." The concept of a new form of schooling was given a pilot test in this summer project in which over 300 students, ages 5-14, were enrolled from throughout the city in a six-week open school.

Marshall

"Individualizing and Humanizing School Programs." Thirteen member districts of the Southwest and West Central Educational Research and Development Council worked together to implement the Individually Guided Education (IGE) model in a variety of elementary schools.

Moorhead

"Project Athena." A non-graded upper elementary class of 70 gifted students taught by a three-member team.

Mora

An "Assessment of the Feasibility of a Continuous Secondary School Year." To develop a plan to implement at the secondary level the 45-15 day year-round school which is the current organizational system in the Mora elementary schools.

Mounds View

"Humanizing Through the Teacher-Counselor Role." This project focused on staff development as a means of creating awareness of needs and some of the skills needed for teachers to accept a more formal role in the guidance program at the secondary level.

New Prague

"Pre-School Oral Language Program." Pre-school children from homes in which Czechoslovakian is spoken, and other children with language handicaps, received instruction from a group of speech therapists over a six-week period.

Osseo

"Improving Instructional Communication." The improvement of instruction in elementary and secondary grades through local production and rebroadcast of video-taped lessons and programs.

Owatonna

"Initial Teaching Alphabet." Learning strategies guide K-2 students to success in reading and writing, using i.t.a. and the transition materials to provide for transfer to the traditional alphabet.

New Ulm

"Early Reading Program Starts in Kindergarten." A centrally organized and coordinated reading program utilizing a variety of materials.

Robbinsdale

"Language Experience Approach in Reading." A program of individualized language experience in reading for the elementary school.

"Zest for Learning and Life." Large and small group instruction, team teaching, modified differentiated staffing, nongraded elementary school.

Rochester

"Supplementary Materials on Education About Minority Groups." A six-week summer workshop on materials for instruction about minority groups.

Roseville	"Kindergarten Early Letter Readiness." Teacher-developed program provides an early, highly structured beginning reading approach. "Secondary Curriculum Development" is designed to extend the well known Individually Guided Education (IGE) model to secondary grades. "Trained Student Tutors." A program to develop, implement, evaluate, and disseminate a model training program for student tutors.
St. Paul	"The St. Paul Open School" has been established as a separate attendance center enrolling 500 students in grades K-12 from all areas of the city, including 11 percent minority children. A major feature is the involvement of parents and laymen. Over 50 volunteers work within the school each week. "Public Service TV Workshop." Concentrated on communication skills, inquiring and problem analysis, awareness of journalistic media sensitivities, and the technical skills of TV production.
Spring Lake Park	"White Studies — A Study of Racism" is to develop students' awareness of the attitudes, values, and practices which have contributed to the nation's race problems.
Staples	"New Roles in Education." Using an extensive series of inservice sessions for elementary and secondary teachers and administrators, the program increases teacher involvement in planning programs, selecting and evaluating staff, and other areas of decision making. "Individualized Non-Graded Elementary Program." A redesigned elementary program for disadvantaged children and others.
Stillwater	"Mini-Courses." A period of four weeks is set aside during the school year in which the "mini-courses" replace the usual sequences of study.
Two Harbors	"Sensory Approach to Creative Writing." A project to discover reliable methods of motivating children to write creatively.
Thief River Falls	"Intercultural Student Exchange." A program to involve a number of local students who would live for two weeks with Black families of Minneapolis and would attend school with the children of those families.
Wayzata	"Joint Feasibility Study in Alternative Education." A joint project with Hopkins and St. Louis Park to systematically analyze the implications of incorporating "open school" structures into their programs.
Willmar	"Human Development Program." Designed to involve elementary students in developing their own personal effectiveness, self-confidence, and an understanding of the causes and effects in interpersonal relationships.
Winona	"Project PLAN (Program for Learning in Accordance with Needs)" is a system of individualized instruction in math, science, language arts, and social studies developed by the American Institute of Research, Westinghouse Learning Corporation, and 14 cooperating school districts throughout the country.

Appendix H

CAREER EDUCATION RESOURCE MATERIALS

Career Development Through English Experiences, 1974 (Junior High School Level), was produced by the College of Education, University of Minnesota, and was published and distributed by the Division of Instruction, Pupil Personnel Services Section, Minnesota Department of Education, St. Paul 55101. Additional copies can be obtained (while supply lasts) by contacting Reynold Erickson, Director, Pupil Personnel Services Section (612/296-4082) or Gerald L. Kincaid, Program Coordinator, Communication Skills Education (612/296-4077). When the initial supply is exhausted, additional copies can be purchased from The Documents Section, Room 140, Centennial Building, St. Paul 55155. $2.50.

Career Education in English, 1974 (Junior High School Level), was produced by Independent School District 623, Roseville, Minnesota, in cooperation with the Minnesota Department of Education, Vocational Division and the Division of Instruction. Inquiries for additional copies should be addressed to Leonard Kodet, Vocational Division, Minnesota Department of Education, St. Paul 55101 (612/296-3248).

Language Arts: Career Related Units, 1973 (Senior High School Level), was produced by Independent School District 281, Robbinsdale, Minnesota, and distributed by the Vocational Division, Minnesota Department of Education, St. Paul 55101. Inquiries for additional copies should be addressed to Leonard Kodet, Vocational Division (612/296-3248).

Appendix I

PRIMARY LEVEL:

BOOKS AND STORIES With Conflict as Theme (at least in part)

Author	Title	Publisher
Andersen, Hans C.	*Ugly Duckling*	Macmillan, 1967
Beim, Lorraine	*Two Is a Team*	Harcourt Brace, 1945
Ciardi, John	*John J. Plenty & Fiddler Dan*	Lippincott, 1963
Farjeon, Eleanor	*Can Men Be Such Fools as That*	Harcourt Brace, 1944
Gag, Wanda	*Gone Is Gone*	Coward McCann, 1935
Grimm Brothers (Lucy Crane, translater)	*The Fisherman & His Wife*	Follett, 1970
Hawthorne, Nathaniel (Goldone, Paul)	*The Golden Touch*	McGraw Hill, 1959
Haywood, Carolyn	*Here's A Penny* (Chap. 1)	Harcourt Brace, 1966
Lenski, Lois	*Judy's Journey* (Chap. 5)	Lippincott, 1947
	We Live in the City (3 stories)	Lippincott, 1954
McClintock, Mike	*A Fly Went By* (Beginner Book)	Random House, 1958
Ness, Evaline	*Sam, Bangs & Moonshine*	Holt, 1966
Steptoe, John	*Stevie*	Harper, 1969
Taylor, Sydney	*The Dog Who Came to Dinner*	Follett, 1966

***Intermediate & Junior High School Levels:* Case studies, stories & activities in cultural understanding**

Several Authors	*Peanut Butter & Yogurt* a) How Not to Win Friends b) Faces In a Crowd c) The Homecoming, etc.	Scott Foresman, 1971

Appendix J

An Annotated Bibliography for Teachers' Resource Center (Not complete, but a starter)

About the Future

Crisis of Survival, The — Editors of *The Progressive*, William Morrow & Co., N. Y. 1970. (Particular reference to "Ecology and Self-Scrutiny: A Cultural Overview," by Benjamin DeMott) $3.25

"The problem," says Professor Boulding, "is that 'Nobody has solved the problem of how to prevent the insidious corruption both of the culture of the powerful and the culture of the impotent.' "

"Our task is to teach ourselves to become, man by man, and woman by woman, each the agent of his own dismantling — his own movement on from a received 'cultural self' to an unknown new identity . . . What we have been we must cease to be." p. 25

Foundations of Futurology in Education, an anthology edited by Richard W. Hostrop, ETC Publications, 18512 Pierce Terrace, Homewood, Ill. 60430, 1973. (Hardcover) $7.95

This anthology is presented in three parts: 1. Introducing the Future, 2. Forecasting and Specifying Educational Futures, 3. Conceptual Views of the Future. That the future is not clear, and needs more study and thought, is demonstrated by the diversity among the authors: With Goodlad emphasizing that "the right to learn must be paramount" to Mitzel's dropping the terms *teach* and *learn* in favor of "instructional agent." It is up to the reader to develop his own perspective. The book should provoke some thoughtful consideration of the future and the language problems in talking about the future.

Inventing Education for the Future, edited by Werner Z. Hirsch & Colleagues, Chandler Publishing Company, 124 Spear St., San Francisco, Calif. 94105 (Particular reference to "After the Future, What?" pp. 55-73 by Robert Bickner, U. of Calif., L.A.) $7.95.

"Why do many of the graduates of our educational system have exaggerated confidence in what they've been taught, yet lack confidence in their own ability to make substantial contributions to their world?" p. 56. "Foresight is becoming almost impossible, and absolutely essential." p. 61.

Learning For Tomorrow, The Role of the Future in Education, Edited by Alvin Toffler, Vintage V-980, 1974 (Paper) $2.95. This anthology is presented under three headings: 1) Images of the Future and Individual Development, 2) The Place of the Future in the Curriculum, 3) Directions and Resources. The essays are explorations still in their infancy, but they can be helpful in developing a perspective about women, Blacks, the humanities, scientists, or science fiction.

McHale, John, *The Future of the Future*, Ballantine 02373.0.150 1971 (paper) $1.50.

"As for the larger communication and understanding implied in a shared planetary culture, it is more than obvious today that we must understand and cooperate on a truly global scale, or we perish." (concluding paragraph, p. 339.)

Meadows, Donella H./Dennis L., et al, *The Limits of Growth*, 1972 Signet 451-W5767 (Paper) $1.50 — A Report For The Club of Rome's Project on the Predicament of Mankind.

"Many reviewers shared our belief that the essential significance of the project lies in its global concept, for it is through knowledge of wholes that we gain understanding of components, and not vice versa." pp. 191-192. "The crux of the matter is not only whether the human species will survive, but even more whether it can survive without falling into a state of worthless existence." (concluding sentence, p. 200.)

About Language, Communication, and Public Doublespeak

Aumente, Jerome, *Against Misinformation*, A Media Action Program for Young People (Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith), KTAV Publishing House, Inc., New York, 1973. (Paper) $2.50.

This book can provide help in the development of a long-range action program for analyzing language and communication in the mass media. Aumente describes some specific examples of action by young people, of extremists and their information machines, of errant journalists, and of misinformation in advertising.

Coming To Terms With Language, an anthology, edited by Raymond D. Liedlich, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1973 (paper) $4.95.

This anthology of 30 essays is presented under six headings: 1) A World of Words: Language and Reality; 2) Hangups, Taboos, Communication Gaps: The Use and Abuse of Language; 3) Up Against the Wall: Rhetoric and Revolution; 4) Color Schemes: Language and Race; 5) The Silent Languages: Verbal and Nonverbal Communication; 6) The Last Word: Language and Culture. Under "Language Structure and Meaning," several examples from this book were used to illustrate how even students of language use in our society may inadvertently become trapped in faulty language structure.

DeVito, Joseph A., *Communication, Concepts and Processes*, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971 (Paper) $4.95 (A college textbook). An anthology of 20 essays divided under three headings: Processes, Messages and Channels, and Sources and Receivers. Since the 20 essays are by 20 different authors, the continuity is dependent upon the questions provided by the editor at the end of each selection. It lacks the consistency of *The Human Transaction*. There may be gaps that the reader will have difficulty filling in, especially since the editor's questions sometimes fail to indicate such gaps.

Fulbright, J. William (Senator), *The Pentagon Propaganda Machine*, Vintage V-688, 1970. (Paper) $1.65.
Fulbright describes and analyzes the Defense Department's expenditures of public funds for the purpose of obtaining financial support for its entire operation. He raises questions about the validity of such an operation being controlled by the Military.

Ginott, Haim G., *Between Parent & Child*, Avon W139, 1969. (Paper) $1.25. *Between Parent & Teenager*, Avon W234, 1969. (Paper) $1.25.
Both Ginott books are filled with suggestions about how to talk with young people and how to provide choices with sensitivity and intelligence.

Johnson, Nicholas, *How To Talk Back To Your Television Set*, Bantam, N5720, 1970 (Paper) $0.95. The author was a member of the Federal Communications Commission, 1967-73.

Language In America, Edited by Neil Postman, et al, Pegasus, New York, P1094, 1969 (Paper) $1.75.
An anthology of essays on our semantic environment, including the language of politics, of bureaucracy, of censorship, of racism, of self-deception, of advertising, of the cold war, etc.

Pace, R. Wayne & Boren, Robert R., *The Human Transaction* — Facets, Functions, and Forms of Interpersonal Communication, Scott, Foresman and Company, 1973 (Hardcover) $5.95.
This book is an attempt to deal with what is going on when we try to communicate with other human beings; it is an attempt to get at the relationships among people, reality, perceptions of reality, and the use of symbols to represent those relationships. It may be one of the most basic books about the process we call communication. A provocative resource book for teachers dealing with "language and communication." (A college textbook.)

Public Television — A Program For Action, The Report of the Carnegie Commission on Educational Television. A Bantam Extra PZ3552 (Paper) $1.00.
This is a book about public television in contrast to commercial television which Johnson and Cirino have treated in their books. It presents a case for strengthening public television from the opportunity to the promise.

Wise, David, *The Politics of Lying*, Vintage V-989, 1973 (Paper) $2.25.
This book is about government secrecy, deception, and power — an appeal for truth, honesty, and openness necessary for the preservation of an open society, for the survival of democracy. It treats the practices of the last four administrations: From U-2 to Watergate.

Helps for Planning Activities for Students

American Language Today, A language arts series edited by Cornelia Nachbar, Bloomington, Minnesota. Webster Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1974. (Elementary level)
Cirino, Robert, *Power To Persuade — Mass Media and The News*, Bantam, QP8392, 1974 (Paper) $1.25.
This book contains over 150 case studies, each of which can be used as a learning activity on "language and communication." It is presented under five headings: 1) Is Objectivity Possible?, 2) Censorship — As Defined By The Consumer, 3) In the Advertiser's Interest, 4) In The Public Interest, 5) Balancing: The Marketplace of Ideas. It culminates with two projects: 1) Designing an Alternative Communication System, 2) Improving the Present Communication System.

Dunstan, Maryjane & Garlan, Patricia, *Worlds In The Making* — probes for students of the future, Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1970. (Paper) $5.35.
This is a secondary English anthology that might be considered as a book of problems which can be solved only by using symbols to summarize our experiences, to group them, to file, isolate, and select them to improve our thinking about the future; and finally, to invent the future we want. It may provide some guidelines for exploring language and communication about the past, present, and the future (science fiction).

Galvin, Kathleen & Book, Cassandra, *Person To Person*, an Introduction to Speech Communication, National Textbook Company, Skokie, Ill. 1973. (Paper) $6.25.
A secondary level textbook that starts with one of the older communication models, but it leads students to an awareness of the differences in their perceptions and to the idea that "meanings are in people." It moves from the problems of person-to-person oral communication to group interaction and group problem-solving.

High Interest — Easy Reading (For Junior & Senior High School Students) Edited by Marian E. White, National Council of Teachers of English, 1972 (Paper) $.95. Citation Press, 50 West 44 Street, New York, N. Y. 10036.
An annotated bibliography of reading material for reluctant readers — not retarded readers — materials covering a wide range of interest areas for the purpose of helping students to learn to like to read.

Interaction, James Moffett, Senior Editor, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973.
Based upon Moffett's *A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum*, Grades K-13, this "interaction" program consists of a wide variety of materials divided into four levels: Primary, Upper Elementary, Secondary, and Advanced.

ISGS Catalogue (Publications on Using Semantics and Improving Communication), International Society for General Semantics, P.O. Box 2469, 509 Sansome St., San Francisco, Cal. 94126. (Free.)

Language of Man, The, McDougal Littell & Company, Evanston, Ill., 1971.
This series for grades 7-12 contains a variety of materials with a "language and communication" focus.

Mitchell, Wanda, *Televising Your Message* — An Introduction to Television as Communication, National Textbook Company, Skokie, Ill. 60076, 1974 (Paper) $4.75.
This book covers the range from why we watch television to the technology of producing television programs — with more emphasis and space devoted to the latter.

Moffeii, James, *A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum*, Grades K-13, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1969. $9.50.
This book provides the basic philosophy and framework for the *Interaction* program, published by the same company.

Ratliffe, Sharon A., & Herman, Deldee M., *Adventures In The*

Looking-Glass, Experiencing Communication with Your-Self and Others, National Textbook Company, Skokie, Ill. 60076, 1973. (Hardcover) $6.00.
Designed for working with adolescents concerning identity development. It deals with self and information systems, perception, symbols, beliefs, decision-making, messages, and emotional climates. It includes 89 specific activities for dealing with the issues indicated above.

Schrank, Jeffrey, *TV Action Book,* MacDougall, Littell, & Co., Evanston, Ill., 1974. $1.77.
This book not only presents data about TV programs and practices and the public's reaction to them, it provides 20 data collection forms for student use in collecting their own data for verification purposes about their own TV behavior and others.

Teachers & Writers Collaborative Newsletter, Teachers & Writers, c/o P.S. 3, 490 Hudson Street, New York, N. Y. 10014. One issue, $1.50; Four issues, $5.00. A non-profit organization providing a service to teachers and writers.

Going to Press Additions

Potter, Robert R., *Making Sense: Exploring Semantics and Critical Thinking,* Globe Book Company, Inc., 1974, Paper: $2.70 (Class price)
Potter presents eight units of study which could provide a basis for a semester's work in a class, or a basis for lessons interwoven with other work over a much longer period of time.

Rank, Hugh, Editor, *Language and Public Policy,* National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801, 1974. Member price: $3.75.
Rank presents 35 essays under four headings: 1. "Watergate as Watershed," 2. "In and Out of the Classroom," 3. A Call to Action . . . and Some Responses," 4. "The NCTE Committee on Public Doublespeak." The book may provide a challenge to our thinking about responsible and irresponsible uses of language.

Reischauer, Edwin O., *Toward the 21st Century: Education for a Changing World,* Vintage V-159, 1974. $2.45.
Reischauer relates communication competencies to international relations as basic to the survival of the human species. He sketches the problems and possible solutions, with a call for radical changes in education for the next two decades.

Hays, Ellis R., *Interact,* ISGS, 509 Sansome Street, P.O. Box 2469, San Francisco, California 94126, 1974. $3.00 ($2.45 for ISGS members). This book contains 90 communication activities for personal life strategies.

Shephard, Ronald T. and Coman, Alan C., *Language Lives,* McDougal, Littel & Co., Evanston, Ill., 1975. This book treats communication problems from the humorous to the tragic.

Shephard, Ronald T. and MacDonald, John, *Grammar Lives,* McDougal, Littel & Co., Evanston, Ill., 1975. This book treats grammar as a functional experience for the learner, focusing on differences in structure and usage that make a difference — from the ridiculous to the sublime.

Appendix K

SOME RECENT AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Sources and Sample Titles Related to Language and Communication

Cost-Usage Problem

In view of the costs of A-V materials and, in some cases, the limited usage for any one school, some school districts have formed a consortium of from four to six schools, with each school purchasing different materials and working out a schedule for sharing the materials. Such cooperative arrangements have provided each school with a wide variety of highly motivating materials at minimum costs.

Films

Those listed are in color unless otherwise indicated as black and white (B & W).

All materials listed have levels indicated by (P) Primary, (E) Elementary, (M) Middle School, (J) Junior High, (S) Secondary. Length of program indicated in minutes (10"); Cost and rental prices will be indicated: (150-10), the first number cost; the second number rental.

SOURCE: Arthur Barr Productions, Inc.
P.O. Box 7-C
Pasadena, California 91104

On Values:

Where Should A Squirrel Live? E, 11", 135-10
Lost Pigeon E, 15", 180-15
King of the Hill JS, 13", 170-15

On Environment:

A Stream Environment PEJ, 9", 125-10
A Thousand Suns JS, 9", 140-15
(About energy and consumption)
Our Land Needs Your Help E, 13", 160-10
The City I See JS, 14", 170-15
Urban Alternatives S, 18½", 250-20
The Seashore JS, 15", 175-15
Ark EJS, 20", 250-20

SOURCE: BFA Educational Media
2211 Michigan Avenue
Santa Monica, California 90404

Communications PE, 9¼", 125-6.50
Learning to Observe PE, 7", 85-7.50
This Is My Friend PE, 10", 140-20
The Possum That Didn't PEJ, 10¾", 140-9.50
A Newspaper Serves Its Community EJS, 14½", 150-8
Television Serves Its Community EJS, 14½", 150-8
The Strange Case of the English Language S, 48", 525-35
Conformity EJS, 7¾", 120-8
Harmony of Nature & Man EJS, 12", 95-20
The Great American Novel: Babbitt S, 26", 300-25
The Great American Novel: The Grapes of Wrath S, 26", 300-25

SOURCE: AIMS Instructional Media Services, Inc.
P.O. Box 1010
Hollywood, California 90028

People (Different, Yet Alike) P to J, 11", 150-20
Painting With Words MJ, 10", 140-20
Signs, Symbols and Signals PE, 11", 150-20
Newspaper . . . Behind the Scenes MJS, 16", 215-30

SOURCE: McGraw-Hill Films
330 West 42nd Street
New York, N. Y. 10036

Pencil and Rubber (animation, on cooperation) P, 9", 130-13
Reading and Critical Thinking E, 15", 200-15
What Is Active and Creative Reading? E, 12", 165-12.50
What Is Effective Reading? E, 12", 165-12.50
Oral Communications: Group Problem Solving S, 13", 175-12.50
Effective Listening, S, 15", 105-15, B & W
Homo Sapiens S, 10", 145-14.50
Cosmic Zoom S, 8", 115-12.50
George Bernard Shaw, B & W, S, 26", 170-14
Ages of Man — Youth, Adulthood, Maturity, Death (four films) S, 104", 530, B & W

Filmstrips and Cassettes

Following the title, the level is indicated, then the number of filmstrips and cassettes, then the price.

SOURCE: Coronet Instructional Media
65 E. South Water Street
Chicago, Illinois 60601

Comparing Things P, 6, 73.00
Sights and Sounds of the Seasons P, 4, 49.00
Words, Media and You S, 6, 90.00
Mark Twain S, 4, 53.00

Multi-Media

Following the title, the level is indicated, number of sets, price.

SOURCE: Learning Arts
P.O. Box 917
Wichita, Kansas 67201

Beginning to Read Level One Series P, 5, 200.00
Action Reading Kits (Reading Level 3-4) EJ, 4, 135.96
Critical Thinking S, 7, 69.95

Sound Filmstrips

Following the title, the level is indicated, number of sets, price.

SOURCE: Guidance Associates
41 Washington Avenue
Pleasantville, New York 10570

Outset/Look About You P, 2, 41.50
Outset/Listen — There Are Sounds Around You P, 2, 41.50
Write Now Wordshop: Hear It and Write E, 2, 42.50
Write Now Wordshop: See It and Write E, 2, 42.50
What Is a Folktale? E, 3, 62.00
Freedom of the Press — Today JS, 2, 41.50
Mass Media: Impact on a Nation, JS, 2, 41.50
Prejudice JS, 2, 41.50
The Literature of Protest JS, 3, 55.50
The American Humorists JS, 2, 41.50
Americal The Poetry of a Nation JS, 2, 41.50
The Vision of Stephen Crane JS, 2, 41.50

Slide-Tape-Record Programs

All programs at the secondary level; following the title, the first number indicates the number of slides, the second number indicates the price.

SOURCE: The Center for Humanities, Inc.
Two Holland Avenue
White Plains, New York 10603

Language, Signs and Symbols: How Man Communicates 160, 104.50
Personal Communication: Gestures, Expressions and Body English 160, 99.85
Learning to See and Understand: Developing Visual Literacy 160, 104.50
An Inquiry into Human Perception: The Nature of Beauty and Ugliness 160, 104.50
Media and Meaning: Human Expression and Technology 160, 99.85
Human Values in an Age of Technology 160, 104.50
Toward the Year 2000: Can We Survive the Future? 160, 99.85
An Inquiry into the Future of Mankind: Designing Tomorrow Today 160, 99.85
An Inquiry into the Nature of Man: His Inhumanity and His Humanity 90, 59.50
Conflict in American Values: Life Style vs. Standard of Living 160, 104.50
Am I Worthwhile? Identity and Self-Image 160, 99.85
Man and Woman: Myths and Stereotypes in Literature and the Arts 160, 99.85
Science Fiction: Jules Verne to Ray Bradbury 240, 149.85